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EDUCATIONAL NEWS AND EDITORIAL COMMENT

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THE FORMULA IS THE SAME

A GENERATION AGO, the totalitarian mind began to spread its poisonous philosophy and unprincipled procedures world-wide. By conquering school systems, by operating through centralized ministries of education, by organizing youth nationally *for service to the state*, by crushing free institutions, by organizing a massive military machine, and by creating an atmosphere of false security, dictatorship triumphed. The sovereignty of the people and the dignity of the individual became abandoned ideals. The state became the fundamental basis for living. *Dictatorships do not arise from spontaneous revolution but from single acts which, when fully organized and nurtured, reduce the individual overnight to a state of intellectual, moral, and even physical subservience.*

When the second World War was proclaimed, we were a nation at peace with the world—one in which for the

preceding ten years few youth had been given the opportunity to work; in which ability was not utilized; in which we felt free to criticize our own institutions. And yet this nation was able to develop an armed service of approximately 12,000,000 men and women representing the smartest armed force in the world. It is said that only 8 per cent of the men in our armed services in World War I possessed a high-school or college education, whereas in World War II 40 per cent of those serving possessed this level of education. From automobiles and refrigerators, radios, clocks, and gadgets, we translated our inventive genius, our ingenuity, our productiveness, within an unbelievably short period of time, into guns, ammunition, tanks, and aircraft. We mobilized for total war. Millions of Americans who had never before operated a machine, in a few short weeks became operators on production lines. Communities were

fully organized for civilian defense. Community antagonisms and differences of long standing disappeared. We worked co-operatively for the common good.

In spite of total mobilization, however, we had differences between management and labor; we had criticism of existing institutions; we had spirited discussions of postwar planning. But there was neither a Gestapo to quell criticism nor the abrogation of the fundamental rights of our citizens during the war period. *We did all this because fear was the impelling force—fear of the loss of our liberty, fear of the power of totalitarianism, fear that we would lose all for which we have fought, bled, and sacrificed these many generations in our own country.*

It is entirely possible to win a military victory and to secure the unconditional surrender of a people but still to be far from winning a war—especially when the war involves ideologies. Marxism is regarded by its advocates as the sole basis of scientific and artistic creation. It is the most important among the weapons of the proletarian class struggle. Anything that aids in the struggle to overthrow capitalism and to establish a classless society is regarded as truth. The distortion of truth which characterizes Soviet scholarship at the present time is a typical instrument employed by all totalitarian systems.

That the United States has come of age materially has been evident to us for some time. Perhaps we are too confident of our superiority, too confident

and too arrogant. Almost overnight this country was placed in an unsolicited position of world leadership.

Intellectually, spiritually, and culturally, however, we hold no such position. We remain in the early stages of adolescence—unprepared, inexperienced, and, in many respects, naïve. Permanent world peace never will be possible without an unrelenting effort in the intellectual, spiritual, and cultural areas. We must come of age in the areas that affect the minds and souls of men, as well as in those that affect the physical requirements for living. Unfortunately, many citizens of other countries base their judgments of the character of the American people and our culture on third-rate motion pictures, on the antics of some of our uninhibited and irrepressible tourists, and on the absence of any substantial effort to contribute to the area of cultural co-operation in Europe or elsewhere.

The struggle of ideologies which circumscribes the future of mankind is not basically in the realm of economics or politics. Difficulties in these areas are but symptoms of the real struggle. Fundamentally, the real struggle is a conflict between materialism and moral-spiritual values. It is a conflict between those who, unwittingly or with intent, would allow persistent and unobstructed evil to destroy the souls of men and those who would create a world of God-inspired humans.

So long as the forces for good remain dispersed, the greater the opportunity for the triumph of evil. These

are days when men of faith in all faiths must influence those of little faith to align themselves with a worldwide moral renaissance; for the totalitarian formula, wherever it exists, includes the wilful destruction of the forces of moral responsibility and spiritual enlightenment.

MILITARY TRAINING VERSUS NATIONAL SERVICE

TEN YEARS AGO, when the issue of military training for all American youth was set forth in H.B. 515, as commissioner of education for Connecticut, I prepared a monograph, *Military Training and Youth* (Connecticut State Board of Education, 1944), setting forth the arguments for military training, and submitted a modified program that located the training function under the National Guard in the several states. In that treatise I stated:

Much controversy may arise in the future regarding the relative merits of a system of military training as part of education and a national service system which would include all youth, male and female, the designed objective being a year of service to our country. This service would be organized in camps. The organization would be on a national basis. It would not include military education but rather health, welfare, and specialized training and work programs. It could duplicate in large measure the youth movements which have been developed under fascism, and nazism. It has a far more sinister implication than military training. The objectives would not be clearly understood as would be the case in military training.

You may recall that, prior to the Korean war, Congressional hearings

were held on a bill to re-establish the Civilian Conservation Corps, because of the unemployment of approximately two million youth. Then, following the Korean war, Senator Tydings introduced Senate Bill 4062, which is called "A bill to provide for the common defense, by establishing a universal training program, *and for other purposes* [italics not in the original]."

I feel certain that educators and parents are willing to make every possible sacrifice for our country and for our collective and individual security—but no such measure as is proposed in Senate Bill 4062 should be passed without complete understanding by our citizens and a particular understanding of the implications of the proposal. Here are a few provisions of the bill:

The word "military" is omitted from the title. It is known as the "National Security Training Act of 1951" and is designed to "provide for the common defense, by establishing a universal training program, and for other purposes."

It declares "that a citizenry trained for defense is the bulwark of democracy and the keystone of preparedness, and can best be assured through youth training for national security."

A National Security Training Advisory Board is created, "which shall consist of a civilian chairman and not less than ten nor more than twenty-five other members appointed by the chairman" of the National Security Training Commission. Three shall be members of the Armed Forces, designated by the Secretary of Defense. The advisory board "shall advise the Commission with particular attention to the *moral, religious, recreational, informational, and educational* [italics not in the original] phases of universal

training, and shall undertake such investigations and studies as requested by the Commission."

Military training, if we have the courage and the honesty to call it that, is not contrary to the principles of our constitutional government based on the democratic ideal. But a national service act, in my judgment, has many serious implications.

It will be contended by some that a system of military training as part of the education of all youth is a radical departure from the principles of the American way and the traditions of our country. The validity of this contention depends, in part, on the manner in which such a program is organized and administered. There was a time in America when the compulsory school attendance of children and youth was regarded as a radical departure from tradition. And yet in our several states all the children of all the people must attend some school until they have reached the age of fourteen or sixteen, depending upon the state. It is true, also, that practically all states have adopted provisions against child labor.

If we still consider universal military training to be a break with tradition, it is wise to recall that other countries have, and will continue to have, military training as part of the educational requirement for youth. Properly organized and administered, such a program should not be considered undemocratic or contrary to the

American way of life. Foreseeing future dangers and preparing to protect our way of life, for which our ancestors fought, bled, and sacrificed, cannot be called undemocratic. Time and American ingenuity, not geography, made us secure prior to World War II. But these factors will not guarantee our security another time. We can lose nothing, therefore, by providing for any exigency through careful planning for rapid conversion of production and for the thorough training of all youth for effective participation in a war machine, should we again be called upon to defend this nation against a foreign foe.

But let us not duck the issue. Senate Bill 4062 calls for *universal training*, not *universal military training*. One year of military training can be had as effectively, perhaps more effectively, if we (1) center the responsibility for training *within each state*, under the jurisdiction and supervision of the National Guard, utilizing state training resources, and (2) continue Selective Service in order that individuals rather than total units will be drawn from the various states. The draft law would apply to individuals though they be under the training jurisdiction of the National Guard. If we have the will, we can do immeasurably more, community by community, for all American youth and still provide the basic military training required. Let us be certain that any bill providing for universal military training is limited to that.

THE STUDY OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE

FOR MANY YEARS NOW, there has been a consistent trend in our schools toward the reduction of the study of foreign languages to a state of less importance in the curriculum. On the other hand, it is doubtful that anyone can defend foreign-language-study on the ground that the higher levels of trustworthy leadership can be occupied only by those who have acquired a special capacity of judgment as the result of instruction in the languages. The whole dubious transfer-of-training premise must be dismissed. For example, men who have occupied places of world leadership and who have been trained in the languages, especially the ancient languages, represent some interesting personalities, including Gladstone, Bismarck, Machiavelli, Voltaire, Clemenceau, Marx, von Papen, Goebbels. Others who have never been initiated into the mysteries of humanism are represented by Lenin, Hitler, Mussolini, Chamberlain, Ebert, Lloyd George, and Bevin.

We have been told too that, because of our lack of opportunity to use other languages, a foreign language cannot be learned as easily in the United States as in Europe or in other countries where knowledge of two or more languages is essential for ordinary communication. On the other hand, we have taught languages as a basis for fulfilling requirements for college admission, and we have, with perfect intellectual dishonesty, required at least one and frequently two lan-

guages for the doctorate, knowing full well that in the majority of cases the individuals would starve to death on the streets of Paris or die a lingering death in Germany if they were put to the test of securing sustenance or medical assistance through the use of the respective languages. We have taught individuals two years or more of two or more languages with little emphasis on mastery. We have prevented the individual from becoming competent at least in one field.

We also have been confronted with the distressing controversy between the grammarian on the one hand and the conversationalist on the other. It sometimes appears that those who teach languages are much more concerned with methodology than they are about the persons who are being taught or about the objective of the course at hand. The Armed Forces, when confronted with the problem, called upon the Council of Learned Societies to develop a plan by which those in the service might be trained to some degree of reasonable proficiency in order to carry out our mission in the world-wide war effort. And while the experimentation engaged in by the services certainly would require some consistent follow-up, the truth is that the concepts of both the grammarian and the conversationalist must be considered in the study of languages.

One of the most essential needs, therefore, emerging out of America's rise to world status is for a revival of interest and effort in the field of for-

eign language and for the development of a program leading to the mastery of at least one language. The following are examples of the steps needed:

1. Any average child can learn a foreign language provided it is started early enough in his education. One of the difficulties in the United States is our delay in teaching languages until the language habit has been formed. Language-teaching for competent pupils should begin in the latter part of the elementary school, perhaps at the fifth- or sixth-grade level—that is, for above-average pupils, not all children.

2. An evaluation of language-teaching should be undertaken.

3. Certification requirements for language-teaching should be completely reviewed and revised.

4. Experimentation in this area should be initiated in selected public schools.

In the interest of our nation's position as a world power, the importance of language must be evident, and it becomes our duty to identify the boys and girls possessing language talent and to see that this talent is educated. As a world power, we should not remain linguistically illiterate.

WORK AND EDUCATION

AMERICAN EDUCATORS have, for several years, been concerned over the disparity between the compulsory school age and the age of employment. In most states children and youth are compelled to attend school until the age of sixteen, but work is becoming increasingly difficult to secure before

the age of eighteen. Prior to the Korean war, nearly two million youth were reported to be unemployed. In fact, the problem had reached such proportions that hearings on a bill to re-establish the Civilian Conservation Corps were held by a committee of the House of Representatives.

Many school systems have developed fruitful and important work-education programs since the days of CCC and NYA. Other secondary schools have lagged, for many reasons. One fundamental principle should prevail, namely, that state and local organization and administration of these programs is important. Co-operation and co-ordination of state and local resources will go far to prevent the necessity of federal intervention—except, perhaps, to aid in the financing of programs.

Youth, not only in the interest of his own future but in the interest of national security, should not leave school without having learned how to use his hands as well as his head and heart. Some day we must have an economic system which will not deny youth the right to work, at least part time. Any nation that permits youth to reach the age of eighteen years without having known the meaning of work is merely setting the date for its own decline. Many of our problems of juvenile delinquency would be solved with a reasonable work-education program, but there is resistance because many call it "child labor."

We must get our facts straight. No one desires child labor again after the

history of the past, but we should not continue to add to the educational program merely to solve unemployment problems. Unless our youth under the age of eighteen understand, and have had the opportunity to know, what work is, irreparable damage has been done for life. Working with one's hands is as honorable as entering a profession. As a matter of fact, the recent rail strike brought home to all Americans the importance of each of us in our economy. The lawyer is no more important than the coal miner, or the engineer on the railroad train, or the lathe operator. All are necessary, and the sooner we recognize the fact, the better for our economy. Too many of our students regard school as the path of least resistance. Both intellectual and manual work are necessary in a nation which will live.

SOME MAJOR ISSUES IN EDUCATION

THROUGH the *School Review* and its companion magazine, the *Elementary School Journal*, we shall attempt from time to time to present points of view on certain major educational issues. Here are a few, some of which have been mentioned or implied in the preceding pages of this issue, as well as in earlier volumes of our two periodicals.

How much formal schooling is required to prepare the individual to live the good life, to protect him from his own indiscretions, and to insure the continuance and strengthening of our constitutional government based upon the democratic ideal?

Are we confusing equality of educational opportunity with identical education for all?

Shall more years of schooling be added in order to relieve the employment market in this age of technology and the substitution of machines for men, or shall we frankly face the necessity of developing a society in which the law of supply and demand will not be applicable to the value of human beings?

How can the separatism which prevails in the educational enterprise be eliminated in the interest of efficiency, economy, and effective programs? For example, shall there be concurrent and unco-ordinated programs of health and health education operated by separate departments at the state or the local level? Shall the school attendance officer and school social worker be appointed, trained, and assigned without relationship to the local social worker or the state welfare establishment? Shall there be a unified program of conservation involving all federal and state agencies? And so on.

What shall be the roles of the federal, state, and local governments in the organization and administration of education and in the determination of educational policy and program? Shall the policies in the United States be directed toward the improvement of local initiative and responsibility? Shall there be a strong central department of education?

Shall we leave the discovery and education of talent to chance, or is it the responsibility of federal, state, and lo-

cal governments to identify talented young people and to provide the financial means whereby they may be educated?

Is there any possibility of evaluating the results of teaching? The evidence of improvement of an individual has been largely through the acquisition of credit for courses. Have we any basis for establishing standards for education and teaching? What do we mean by standards? The issue is one which, educationally, has not been answered.

Can we develop instruments by which we can measure education rather than the results of schooling? What is the impact of the family on the intellectual development, the habits, attitudes, and behavior of individuals? What is the effect of labor-union association? Or association in fraternal organizations, in the community, on the job? What are the impacts of the library, of the museum, of mass media? We can measure the results of schooling in so far as the transfer of information is concerned. What experimentation should be undertaken in attempts to determine whether we should attribute to the school or formal education the important place in total education that seems to have prevailed?

Can the people of the United States finance the educational program which is now developing? Is not the *will* to support more important in effective management of the educational enterprise than are other criteria?

Can we continue to plan an educational program or the content of a cur-

riculum by levels of education, that is, with the elementary school, secondary school, and higher education operating separately and independently? Would not our United States be served better, and would not much of the overlapping and duplication and lack of co-ordination in the educational program be avoided, if those responsible for each level of education could at least know what transpires in the other? For example, since reading is fundamental to education from the elementary school through college, would it not be taught more effectively if there were closer co-ordination among the levels of American education? Does not the same hold true with respect to citizenship education or general education of the individual?

MOBILIZATION OF EDUCATION

UNDER THE LEADERSHIP of the National Education Association and the National Council of Chief State School Officers, there was born in Washington on September 9 and 10 the National Conference for Mobilization of Education. Its creation was approved by representatives from eighty national organizations, ranging from the American Association for the Advancement of Science through the Vocational Guidance Association. An executive committee of seventeen members was named, with Willard E. Givens, executive secretary of the National Education Association, as chairman.

The philosophy of the Conference was summed up in three resolutions:

1. We pledge our full support in the mobilization of the resources of the United States to meet the national and international emergency created by acts and threats of aggression.

2. We commend the action of the National Security Resources Board and the President in establishing the United States Office of Education as an advisory and consultative agency on those aspects of security planning that relate to education, and as an operating agency in the major fields of federal educational and training programs.

3. We urge renewed effort to develop, through education, an intelligent and resolute understanding of the current role of the United Nations in preventing and resisting aggression.

The purpose of the Conference will be to further the efforts of voluntary educational organizations in the mobilization of the nation. Specific aims are:

1. To conduct meetings for co-operative planning related to education and national security.

2. To maintain a clearing house of information on those aspects of mobilization affecting education.

3. To make it possible to bring to a focal point the various educational problems that arise in the field related to national security so that they may receive proper consideration in national policy formation.

4. To serve as a co-operative channel of communication between organized education in the United States and the federal government on mobilization matters of concern to those engaged in education.

The Conference will be composed of individuals named by voluntary associations that have education at any level as their chief concern, are non-profit and noncommercial. Each par-

ticipating organization retains full freedom of action with respect to its own policies and programs.

A series of study groups considered problems related to manpower, military training, research, industrial training, priorities and allocations of materials, civilian defense, strengthening teacher staffs, public relations, state and federal relations in the emergency, and implications for the curriculum. The Committee on Implications for the Curriculum reported:

We believe that there are several priority areas of education that need redirection and emphasis both for the long-range plan and to meet the present emergency, however long that shall last. Among these areas are: citizenship, health and fitness, guidance, literary, work-learn experience and occupational adjustment, consumer education, and home and family life.

AID FOR PUBLIC SCHOOLS FROM CITIZENS

IN MAY, 1949, the formation of the National Citizens Commission for the Public Schools was announced. Its members are laymen who are not professionally identified with education, religion, or politics. They reflect many kinds of experience; they serve as individuals; and they represent no organizations or groups.

The Commission's chairman, Roy E. Larsen, president of Time Incorporated, said at the time of the organization of the new body, "The problems of public education concern all of us, and it is time for all of us to do something about them." The Commission serves community groups that want to

work toward the improvement of their schools. It acts as a clearing house for the collection and dissemination of information on public school problems so that local groups of laymen working for better schools may have the benefit of the experiences of similar groups elsewhere. Initial financial support for the Commission was given by the Carnegie Corporation and the General Education Board.

Henry Toy, Jr., director of the National Citizens Commission for the Public Schools, recently announced that the organization moved into the work of the school year 1950-51 with expanded facilities and personnel. In addition to the New York office, the first regional office was opened at Louisville, Kentucky, under the direction of Maurice D. Bement.

The regional office will provide, in a limited way, the same services to citizens' groups within the area that the national office of the Commission provides generally. Future emphasis will be placed on the formation of citizens' groups and on enlistment of the interest of community leaders throughout the South. The work of the national office will also benefit through the new channels of communication opened up by regional directors in the field.

Another evidence of the enlarged activities of the National Commission is the publication of a helpful booklet entitled "What Do We Know about Our Schools?" This brochure presents a collection of questions for people to ask about their own public schools. As

the introduction to the brochure states, "Anyone who could answer all of [these questions] would know a great deal about his local and state schools and about ways of improving them":

These questions are the work of about two hundred people who are themselves engaged in efforts to better their local schools. These are the questions they found they had to ask to determine the quality of their own schools and to devise their own plans for improvement.

These two hundred people included school superintendents, teachers, school-board members, leaders of citizen committees, and representatives of many national organizations with an interest in the schools. They came from rural, suburban, and metropolitan areas in forty different states to attend two regional workshop conferences sponsored by the National Citizens Commission for the Public Schools. One of these conferences was held in Atlantic City, New Jersey, in February, 1950, and the other was in Detroit, Michigan, in April of the same year. . . .

It is hoped that these questions will be useful in a variety of ways. Although they may help the individual understand his schools, it is felt that they lend themselves best to discussion and action by committees representing a cross-section of the community. The answers to school problems can be found only in the communities concerned by the people concerned, and in recognition of this fact, quite a few communities are already planning "answer meetings," in which local educators and all interested residents may participate.

Copies of this brochure may be obtained from the National Citizens Commission for the Public Schools, 2 West Forty-fifth Street, New York 19, New York.

EDUCATION IN FINANCIAL SECURITY

AFTER TWO YEARS of preliminary study, the Committee on Family Financial Security Education has started work on its long-range program aimed at creating better understanding by high-school students of personal money matters and problems of financial security. The committee is headed by Dr. Herold C. Hunt, general superintendent of schools in Chicago, who formed it about two years ago with the co-operation of several other educators and the Institute of Life Insurance. The Committee's educational program is being financed by a grant from the Institute.

Having completed a comprehensive study of high-school curriculums, the first major step in its program, the committee has two other projects set for the near future and is preparing several more to meet its objectives of providing education in financial security. This education is to consider budgeting, social security, life insurance, general insurance, savings programs, pension plans, investments, and home ownership.

During the past summer a most successful graduate workshop on education in this area was held at the University of Pennsylvania. Close to forty educators from all parts of the country attended, the participants having been invited on the basis of their interest in the subject.

The committee's program envisions the development of a curriculum outline, which can be used as a guide

or a pattern for schools to follow in setting up units of instruction on financial security, and the establishment of teachers' workshops on a community level.

The curriculum study was supervised by Hamden Forkner, professor of business education at Teachers College, Columbia University, and was carried out by Albert C. Mossin, chairman of the Department of Business Education, Teachers College of Connecticut, under the direction of Thomas H. Briggs, director of the Consumer Education Study.

In making his study, Dr. Mossin used two approaches. He first analyzed the financial-security content of forty-five textbooks and twenty-eight course-of-study syllabi for high schools. Then he analyzed the completed questionnaires returned by 388 teachers in a nationally representative sample of public high schools. Some findings were:

Schools with populations of more than two thousand tend to give more instructional time to financial-security topics than do smaller schools.

Rural children tend to receive less instruction in the principles and problems of financial security than do urban children.

The majority of teachers agree that instruction should be given on financial security. Most of the teachers would have the subject taught in Grades XI and XII.

Only three of the forty-five textbooks treated a substantial proportion of financial-security topics. The larger aspects of financial security and some of the significant topics under them were included in a majori-

ty of the textbooks in consumer education and general business. . . .

Financial-security detail was lacking in the course-of-study outlines. In fact, these syllabi for the most part were "skimpy" in their treatment of the principles of financial security.

The teachers' questionnaires showed that 2.7 per cent of their classroom time was spent on financial-security topics. For the commercial pupil about one period in seventy is devoted to these topics, but the non-commercial pupil receives only a fraction of this amount of instruction.

A bulletin, *Financial Security Facts for Teachers*, will appear periodically during the school year and will contain information about the committee's educational program, timely facts for teachers on financial-security topics, and reviews of new teaching aids. The bulletin is being published for the Committee by the Educational Division of the Institute of Life Insurance, 488 Madison Avenue, New York 22, New York.

ALONZO G. GRACE

EDITORIAL ANNOUNCEMENT

ON APRIL 15, 1950, Dr. Alonzo G. Grace was appointed chairman of the Department of Education of the University of Chicago, to succeed Dr. Ralph W. Tyler, who became dean of the University's Division of the Social Sciences in the autumn of 1948. In his capacity as chairman of the Department, Dr. Grace also assumes the chairmanship of the Editorial Committees of the *School Review*, the *Elementary School Journal*, and the Supplementary Educational Monographs. These committees, which were established by Dr. Tyler in the autumn of 1940, have recently been reconstituted. The present membership of the Editorial Committee of the *School Review* is shown on the inside cover of this issue.

WHO'S WHO FOR NOVEMBER

Authors of news notes and articles

The news notes in this issue have been prepared by ALONZO G. GRACE, head of the Department of Education and professor of educational administration at the University of Chicago. Professor Grace served as director of Education and Cultural Relations in the Office of Military Government and the Office of the High Commissioner in Berlin from February, 1948, to November, 1949, and is, therefore, well qualified to speak about totalitarianism and education. BRUCE ALLINGHAM, formerly principal of the Fort Morgan (Colorado) Junior-Senior High School and now principal of the Benjamin Franklin High School in Cedar Rapids, Iowa, describes the growth and development of the student council at Fort Morgan Junior-Senior High School. ALBERT I. OLIVER, assistant professor of education at the University of Pennsylvania, presents the results of a study of what the basic goals of small high schools should be in the opinion of prominent educators and practicing superintendents and principals of schools as compared with the goals found in actual practice. J. CONRAD SEEGER, dean of the Teachers College of Temple University, discusses the problem whether formal grammar or usage should be emphasized in the teaching of grammar. ADOLPH UNRUH, associate professor of education at Washington University, reports the results of a study of the kind and amount of state

leadership in the area of junior-college curriculum development that would be acceptable to junior colleges. KATHARINE DRESDEN, associate professor of education at Chico State College, Chico, California, and LUCIEN B. KINNEY, professor of education at Stanford University, explain how in-service training for teachers was provided through a project in group journalism. JAMES A. BOYD, teacher in the Social Studies Department of the Newton High School, Newtonville, Massachusetts, examines the general objectives of a course in American history and suggests methods of attaining the aims. FRANCES SWINEFORD, head of the Test Analysis Section of the Statistical Analysis Department of the Educational Testing Service, Princeton, New Jersey, and KARL J. HOLZINGER, professor of education at the University of Chicago, present a list of selected references on statistics, the theory of test construction, and factor analysis.

Reviewers of books

J. LLOYD TRUMP, head of the Office of Teacher Placement of the University of Illinois. MARIAN RAYBURN BROWN, specialist in guidance, formerly vocational counselor in the office of the dean of women, Cornell University. THOMAS E. CHRISTENSEN, director of the Department of Guidance of the public schools of Worcester, Massachusetts.

STUDENTS, FACULTY, AND PRINCIPAL MANAGE A HIGH SCHOOL

BRUCE ALLINGHAM

Benjamin Franklin High School, Cedar Rapids, Iowa



THE "STUDENT" GOVERNMENT—so-called—at Fort Morgan (Colorado) High School has simply grown "like Topsy." Indeed, with pleasure and amazement the faculty and administration of the school these past few years have watched a feeble, unresponsive student-government program develop into an intriguing and all-encompassing way of life for the school and its surrounding community.

At the advent of the present student-government organization, there was a student council composed of (1) representatives elected by each third-period morning class and (2) a representative from each of the clubs and organizations of the school. A member of the faculty was appointed annually as sponsor by the principal, who endeavored to work closely with the sponsor and the officers of the council. With only slight modification, the method of electing representatives to the council has remained the same, as has the method of electing annually, by popular ballot, the president and the vice-president of the student body. The sponsor, however, is now elected annually by the council itself, from a

list of "available" teachers submitted by the principal.

One of the most important things to keep in mind in considering the development of a program of student participation in school management (the term "student government" is really not accurate) is that no one should undertake an experiment in active student participation unless he has faith in young people and can get that feeling of confidence over to them.¹

At Fort Morgan, the first step necessary was the development of this positive, stimulating faith in the innate fairness, intelligence, and initiative of the students. It was not a simple thing to do, nor was it quickly accomplished. The writer and the sponsor spent many hours planning the method of attack and developing the basic philosophy which was to be the foundation of our plans.

¹ a) Earl C. Kelley and Roland C. Faunce, *Your School and Its Government*. New York: National Self Government Committee, Inc., 1945.

b) Earl C. Kelley, "How Student Government Functions in 448 Schools," *Clearing House*, XIX (December, 1944), 232-35.

AN IMPORTANT STEP

Admittedly, the initial problems brought before the council were relatively inconsequential, but during this early period when students, principal, and sponsor were cautiously feeling their way, the administrator and sponsor initiated what later proved to be an important step. Meetings of the council were held regularly at the noon hour every other Wednesday. The meetings normally lasted about forty-five minutes, but on one occasion the group was engaged in a spirited and purposeful discussion of plans for staging their first real school-sponsored home-coming celebration in years. The meeting-time drew to a close. As the students began to glance apprehensively at the clock, the principal interrupted to say, in effect:

"You are in the midst of an important discussion which vitally concerns all of us. We do not want this home-coming event to be poorly executed, and it will take considerable additional time to complete the planning, appointment of working committees, and all the details necessary to assure a celebration of which we can be proud. I will make arrangements immediately for your absence from the afternoon classes you may miss; and you, in turn, must be completely responsible for promptly making up the work you will miss by this absence."

It might be explained that almost 45 per cent of the students in the school are transported by bus, and after-school meetings are virtually out of the question—hence the necessity

for completing the meeting during school hours.

This action set a precedent and established a procedure which was heatedly debated in formal and informal faculty sessions for many months, but it was a turning point in the attitude toward the council. Soon the bi-weekly meetings all lasted from 12:15 P.M. until the busses left at 3:15. Sometimes the work of the council could not be completed in the one meeting, and further business would be carried over for completion the next day. In answer to persons who might be critical of devoting so much time to the meetings, it should be stressed that the free, unhampered discussions of the council, exploring every angle of a problem, setting up hypothetical solutions and analyzing them, and eventually arriving at a deliberatively conceived majority opinion, have been the fundamental basis of the success of the entire venture. If the principal and the sponsor, in their haste to "get the meeting over," had shown impatience at the amateurish deliberations of the students—and they were uncertain and amateurish in the beginning—the confidence so necessary to success would have been destroyed. Now, after practice, the officers and members of the council are masters of the open-discussion method. They know at firsthand the great responsibilities of majority rule, with its attendant obligation to give full consideration to minority opinion.

At times, the principal and the sponsor, working co-operatively with

the council, watching the students slowly grow to new stature, were hard put to it to assuage the outraged pride of conscientious teachers who emphatically resented having even excellent students "frittering away" valuable time that could be devoted to their subject-matter classwork. Of course, the work was always promptly made up in full, but to these teachers the council was still just an extra-curriculum activity and not an accepted and cherished part of the educative process.

Yet, as time went on, the representatives became more and more poised, confident, and understanding of their responsibility. They knew that they—and the whole plan—were, in a sense, on trial, and they wanted to prove to everyone that they merited the faith and confidence openly placed in their ability.

REPORTING TO THE STUDENT BODY

In their third-period classes, called "home rooms" for convenience, and in their club meetings, prior to regular council meetings, the proposed agenda for each council meeting was thoroughly discussed, and additional suggestions or queries were given the representatives to carry to the council. On the days following council meetings, the representatives reported back in detail to the home rooms on all discussions of the council. Such a detailed report, of course, necessitated the taking of careful notes during the council meetings; for the students in the home rooms wanted to get the

complete picture of the council's actions and decisions. This procedure also was a crucial point in the success of the plan, since close understanding between the student body and the council is absolutely imperative if student government is to be successful and if its actions and decisions are to be accepted by the rank and file of the students. If the student body feels "out of things" and if the students do not feel that they are an actual part of a functioning program, the enterprise will collapse.

In the beginning, some of the representatives were more or less inept at conducting home-room meetings. They needed guidance and encouragement from their home-room teachers. Needless to say, they did not always get it. However, many of the teachers did help, even though they were not convinced of the value of the plan, and gradually even the less able among the representatives began to develop as group-discussion leaders and as actively participating members of the council. In fact, it was obligatory, as the council expanded its operations, that they participate actively in discussing, planning, investigating, and persuading. Everything depended on their learning to lead without being too obvious—certainly an essential skill for anyone shouldered with leadership duties in a democracy.

To press home this point, a clause was inserted in the constitution by council action permitting the recall of a representative at any time by a majority vote of a home room or club.

Furthermore, it became mandatory that, at the end of the first semester, in a home-room class which continued all year, the representative stand for a "vote of confidence." If he did not get a majority vote for his continuation in office, a new election was to be held immediately. Obviously, this measure helps to keep the occasional dilatory representative on his toes, although, as yet, none has been recalled.

GROWTH OF INITIATIVE

The expanding scope of student participation in the planning and the management of the school became real and apparent to all. They sought out problems to solve and initiated a variety of actions which served to make every council member, and many other children from the student body, participate in a large amount of committee work. The administration and faculty kept up the students' interest by suggesting broader and more comprehensive responsibilities for them to undertake. In fact, it became the philosophy of everyone concerned to give the pupils all the responsibility they could carry with success and to inspire them to be satisfied with nothing less than success.

Members of the council were free to discuss any school policy they cared to bring up, and the principal and the sponsor were always ready to help them avoid making decisions that might be contrary to school policy. This willingness on the part of the administration and faculty to discuss with the students the management of

the school is a big step, but an essential one.² Of course, it must be made clear to everyone that the authority of the council is delegated and can be withdrawn at any time if not properly used. However, the explanation of this principle can be made the basis of a friendly, co-operative understanding of the responsibility of the school officials and faculty toward the legal, adult voters of the community in whom the final authority for conducting the school lies. This point need not be a source of irritation, suspicion, and apprehension to the persons involved. Boys and girls respond with enthusiasm to a reasonable, fair, and sympathetic desire to co-operate if teachers and administrators are only willing to "go halfway." Frankly, at Fort Morgan it has never been necessary even to threaten a veto of council action.

In implementing this reasonable, co-operative attitude among students, faculty, and, especially, administration, it has been frequently and openly reiterated that any regulation designed to assist in effective management of the school may be changed if the council, after weighing all factors involved, asks for the change and assumes responsibility for assuring its acceptance by the students. Nothing of this nature is done on the spur of the moment; for the council members themselves are fully cognizant of the effect of an unfavorable result of one of their decisions, not because of fear

² Pearl L. Ford and R. C. Bryan, "A Student Council Grows in Responsibility," *Clearing House*, XIX (November, 1944), 151-56.

of censure from faculty or administration, but because of their awareness of the critical scrutiny of their school-mates. All angles of a problem are thoroughly explored before a decision is made to request a change. The pupils, it should be noted, do not make the change. They advise, and the administration and the faculty co-operate. This co-operation has led to a development in the Fort Morgan plan that seems unique in its application.

INCREASED FACULTY PARTICIPATION

On numerous occasions during the second year of the experiment, the council found it necessary to request an audience at the regular monthly faculty meeting. Various committees of the council appeared before the assembled teachers to explain projects and problems and to request the teachers' co-operation and suggestions. Furthermore, the teachers began to feel more and more "out of things." They felt that they were inadequately informed about many of the school events.

Then came the suggestion that the principal appoint four additional faculty members to the council as regular voting members representing the faculty. This plan necessitated taking four more teachers from their classes, in addition to the sponsor, and hiring substitutes to handle their classes. At the request of the principal, the board of education and the superintendent quickly and unhesitatingly approved the financial expenditure and other phases of the plan, and the step was

taken at the beginning of the third year.

The move was a happy one, and, for the first time, other members of the faculty actually saw the council in operation. They learned quickly not to dominate, but to encourage, student discussion and to participate themselves with quiet, careful reasonableness, never adopting a dictatorial "thou shalt not" attitude. Needless to say, they were amazed and thrilled at the constant evidences of fairness, good judgment, and social understanding of the students. They worked on committees with the students and contributed to discussions and actions an adult viewpoint that the students genuinely appreciated. The stiff, pupil-teacher atmosphere was quickly dissipated. The teachers moved to help, not oppose, the work of the pupils, and they received, in return, a full measure of respect, gratitude, and honest friendship. They did not try to control things, fearful of results; together, the teachers and students were achieving common goals. The morale of the whole school soared to a new high.

As the faculty-representation experiment got under way, the faculty group as a whole decided that they needed to meet more frequently than once a month. Entirely by their own volition, they decided that the faculty would meet after school on the Tuesday preceding each council meeting so that they might review the agenda of the council and offer their suggestions through their representatives

and, incidentally, be better prepared to help student home-room representatives with their discussion meetings.

As an outgrowth of this move came the question, "Why cannot we elect our representatives instead of having them appointed by the principal?" The principal instantly agreed to this suggestion, and, at the end of the first semester, the faculty elected four members of their own choosing to the council. These four faculty members served during the second semester.

DEVELOPMENT OF STUDENT RESPONSIBILITY

Occasionally the writer is asked about the danger of too much freedom for students. The answer is not simple. First of all, however, it should be thoroughly understood that it is mandatory for each individual student and teacher to maintain respect and consideration for one another. There can be no laxity of "discipline." There can be no diminishing of the responsibility of the administration and the faculty for the conduct of the school. These facts have been discussed many times in council meetings at Fort Morgan, and the student-council members agree that over 95 per cent of the students want a "strict," rather than an "easy," school. The use of persuasion and reason is always attempted in dealing with the 5 per cent (or less) of the students who sometimes become "problems"; for absolute fairness is basic to the acceptance of administrative action by the in-

dividual student and the school as a whole.

However, on the theory that it is a privilege, as well as a right, to go to high school, the student who adamantly refuses to be co-operative is dropped from school. This action rarely is necessary, for the obvious guidance opportunities of the program provide ample openings for a friendly, persuasive approach which digs down to the roots of personal problems. Yet, just as parents must be firm and unyielding at times in demanding certain actions and results from their children, so must the teacher be firm and insistent upon the best of which every youth is capable, be it deportment or a work assignment.

ACTUAL PROBLEMS ATTACKED

Space will not permit a lengthy recital of the problems attacked and solved and the innumerable projects pushed through to successful conclusions by the council at Fort Morgan. Yet the record of the council has been so overwhelmingly creditable that the writer would like to cite a few representative projects.

The home-coming celebrations, planned and executed by the council, with the help of the Girl's Pep Clubs, boys' M-Club (athletic letter-men), and other organizations, have been in the best of tradition. The huge, all-school vaudeville, inaugurated in the spring several years ago, which featured about 200 boys and girls in a colorful assortment of acts, will have to be presented two nights instead of

one because hundreds of patrons protested after only 1,500 persons could crowd in to see the performance. The children were stunned by the thunderous applause for each act. The council also sponsored the development of a thriving UNESCO chapter in which over 250 students participated. In addition, they have pitched in on bond drives and on cancer and Red Cross fund-raising campaigns, even canvassing areas of the town to help out adult committees on some occasions.

Another council project evolved when a young Spanish-American lad, who had been stationed at the school by the State Agricultural College to receive his practice teaching, was refused service at a local restaurant. The young man did not advertise his embarrassment nor the fact that he had seen combat service in World War II as a member of the United States Army, but someone reported the incident to the council. The members were at first incredulous. In their blissful youthfulness, the ugly specter of color had never registered. Then their anger blazed at white heat. In one terrific swoop, they strained to blot out every injustice and hurt that mankind has caused by its stupid prejudices. Imagine their amazement, as they launched an intensive investigation of discriminatory practices in the community, to find that one of their own number, a Spanish-American boy, an honor student and athlete, could not swim in the municipal pool because of a regulation prohibiting

anyone except "white" people from using its facilities. Then the "heat" was really on.

The members of the city council were splendid and patient and fair with the children. The regulation had been decided on years before because many transient Spanish-American beet-field workers had tried to take over the pool and use it for laundry and bathing purposes. The problem was still there, and the earnest city officials, although admitting the unfairness of the regulation, were stumped for a solution. The children insisted that the rule be wiped away entirely, but the officials, although sympathetic, refused. They did, however, ask the student council to suggest a compromise. The pupils really worked on this solution and finally hit upon a "membership" idea which permitted free use of the pool to local, acceptable Spanish-Americans, but reserved to the pool management the right to refuse swimming privileges to transients.

In the case of the young man who was refused service in the local restaurant, the council, with the help and complete co-operation of the faculty, wrote an open letter to the citizens of Fort Morgan, which was published in the *Fort Morgan Times*, the daily paper, in a box on the front page. The letter defended the right of this young man, or any other young, decently behaved citizen, to receive courteous and fair treatment in a community. It was a wonderful letter, and it was signed by both the Asso-

ciated Students of Fort Morgan High School and the faculty. The "white trade only" signs soon disappeared from places of business, and the students of Fort Morgan High School grew still further in stature in the eyes of the community.

One of their greatest ventures was the installing of a magnificent new public-address and intercommunication system in the school. The project was a co-operative enterprise in conjunction with the board of education, and it came about in this fashion:

The original office-to-room telephone system in the school, installed in 1925, was "shorting out" in some conduits, and it was impossible to communicate with many rooms. Furthermore, the bell system for classes, using the same conduits, was uncertain at best. In order to get action on the matter, the council appointed a committee empowered to explore the possibility of a new sound system. Sound engineers were called to suggest plans for public-address and intercommunication facilities, draw up plans and specifications, and quote prices.

After considerable deliberation on selection of the type of equipment and methods of financing, the council asked the principal to go to the board of education and submit the offer of the council to pay \$2,000 of the \$3,500 necessary to instal their choice of equipment, if the board would pay the additional \$1,500 and have the equipment installed immediately, so that the students could all enjoy it the rest of the year (they were thinking of the Seniors here, for the Senior class always has money). The entire system was installed during Christmas vacation. It is wonderful, and the money, over half paid off in instalments in the first year, is being paid by pledges from the hard-working and alert organizations and clubs of the school. Furthermore, it all has to be earned. None of it can come from dues or assessments.

After having experienced the workings of a live council, no one at Fort Morgan would ever again be satisfied just to "go through the motions." This is living. This is dynamic, functioning democracy.

BASIC GOALS FOR A SMALL HIGH SCHOOL: THEORY AND PRACTICE

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THE CHIEF PURPOSES of the high school must be determined before it is possible to decide on the details of the program to be offered. In a small high school this is doubly important because, with its limited facilities and services, it cannot offer a "buckshot" program in the hope that some of its efforts will hit the mark. It must single out its chief targets so that each shot will count.

PROCEDURE OF THIS STUDY

In order to determine the topics that should receive primary attention in the small high school, a group of educators was asked to consider the merits of items in five areas: basic skills, personal problems, special areas, larger social relationships, and appreciations and discriminations. Questionnaires about these areas were returned to the writer as part of a study made at the University of Colorado in 1949. Half of this "jury" of eighty-six respondents were prominent educators. The other half was composed of superintendents and principals who had been designated by their respective state departments of education as persons who had done

outstanding work with small high schools in the various states. These eighty-six jurors were sent the list of topics, fifty-eight in all, and asked to rate each topic on a five-point scale according to the degree of emphasis that the topic should be given.

A similar questionnaire was sent to various small high schools throughout the United States, asking what attention was actually given the topics in their schools. For the purpose of this study, a small high school was defined as one enrolling fewer than two hundred students. In all, 228 high schools responded to the questionnaire. These schools are distributed throughout the country, with at least two in each of the forty-eight states.

Table 1 lists the ratings of the jury and of the participating schools. Thus, it is possible to see how closely the schools represented by this widely distributed group are following the ideals, as determined by the jury of prominent educators, and also to discover the relative importance which the schools and the "experts" attach to various items. For example, in the first section, "Attention to Basic Skills," the jury gave its highest rating (3.57)

TABLE 1

AVERAGE RATINGS* GIVEN BY A JURY OF 86 PROMINENT EDUCATORS
AND SCHOOL ADMINISTRATORS ON DESIRABLE PRACTICES IN
SMALL HIGH SCHOOL CURRICULUMS AND BY 228 SCHOOL PRIN-
CIPALS ON ACTUAL PRACTICES IN THEIR SCHOOLS

Topic for Attention	Jury Rating	School Rating
Attention to basic skills:		
How to study	3.57	2.16
Reading for comprehension	3.54	2.59
Oral expression	3.41	2.44
Reading critically	3.35	2.14
Use of reference material	3.21	2.57
Vocabulary development	3.08	2.51
Scientific method	3.08	2.09
Written composition	2.92	2.59
Reading rapidly	2.82	1.34
Mathematical processes	2.69	2.98
Spelling	2.67	2.35
Geographical knowledge	2.50	1.94
English grammar	2.43	3.06
Handwriting	2.34	1.58
Personal problems:		
Maintenance of health	3.61	2.62
Development of self-reliance	3.48	↑
Intellectual initiative	3.32	↑
Discovery of special aptitudes	3.26	1.94
Moral training	3.24	2.41
Personal appearance	3.15	2.22
Marriage and family living	3.10	1.50
Consumer education	3.01	1.57
Development of special aptitudes	3.01	1.82
General vocational education	2.88	2.00
Cultivation of hobbies	2.59	1.58
Sex relationships	2.59	1.15
Specific vocational training	1.68	1.57
Special areas:		
Conservation	3.41	2.16
Dignity of labor	3.41	1.80
Use of and respect for machines	2.84	1.91
Controversial issues	2.70	1.65
Scientific farming	2.68	1.65
Larger social relationships:		
Citizenship training	3.73	2.20
Civic responsibilities	3.61	2.59
Problems of democracy	3.36	2.61
Safety education	3.31	2.40
International relationships	3.26	2.04
UNESCO	3.26	1.43
Current events	3.25	2.59
Racial understanding	3.24	1.99
Social service	3.16	2.07
Public health	3.14	2.16
Student government	3.05	2.16
Study of sources of information	3.05	1.71
Useful home skills	3.03	↑
Creative expression	3.00	↑
Labor-management relations	2.74	1.55
Driver education	2.67	1.25
Social security	2.61	1.48
"Carry-over" sports	2.59	↑

TABLE 1—Continued

Topic for Attention	Jury Rating	School Rating
Appreciations, discriminations:		
Current literature.....	3.04	2.23
Music.....	2.83	2.52
Radio listening.....	2.81	1.25
Evaluation of movies.....	2.75	1.11
Home decorations.....	2.68	1.93
Art.....	2.47	1.26
Auditorium arts.....	2.22	†
Classical literature.....	2.01	2.06

* The scale for indicating how much the topics should be emphasized was as follows:
 0 = not at all; 1 = small degree; 2 = intermediate degree; 3 = high degree; 4 = very
 great degree.

† Not on the questionnaire for schools.

to how to study, but the schools gave their most important rating (3.06) to English grammar.

It is not feasible to discuss here each of these fifty or more items, since many of the detailed points can be discovered by looking at the separate topics in the table. Rather, certain trends in related topics may be noted, and special attention directed to some of the main differences and similarities between the conditions existing in the schools today and the goals toward which, in the judgment of the jurors, the schools ought to work.

It was rather difficult to get adequate ratings on every item, for, as one juror commented:

The items are particularly difficult to check. Real emphasis should be sought in almost every one of these areas—without courses necessarily devoted to such areas. Any good school should greatly emphasize health maintenance, hobby cultivation, moral training, conservation, safety education, good radio listening, personal appearance, etc.

While it must be recognized that much subjective judgment was used

in rating these topics, many of which are of a somewhat intangible nature, there do not seem to be many small schools that are living up to the standards desired by this jury. In general, the schools tended to rate lower than did the jurors. Some, of course, tended to "lean over backwards" lest they be accused of presenting too good a picture; others were influenced by what they thought conditions ought to be. The assumption in this report is, however, that the school men who tended to mark low and those who had a tendency to give themselves high ratings will offset each other.

RATINGS ON BASIC SKILLS

English grammar.—As has been indicated, there seemed to be a tendency among the schools to emphasize the traditional three R's, with the greatest attention on English grammar (3.06) and mathematical processes (2.98). A generalization may be made on this point: the small schools are more concerned with traditional areas than with the more modern curricu-

lum approaches, such as consumer education, driver education, and studying sources of information. Such an observation indicates that the small high schools are responding slowly to the changes in the society about them.

Some of the marginal comments of the jurors indicated that what they were objecting to was formal grammar. Some of them said that they would subscribe to emphasis on grammar provided that it was functional, and one man made the pointed criticism, "Of course, the rating really depends upon what is included in the heading. English grammar, for instance, can be made functional if related to expression. As usually taught, it is the greatest single waste of time in school." Thus, the implication is that the school places emphasis in the wrong place.

Mathematical processes.—Certainly, the educated person in a complicated technological civilization will need considerable training in mathematics. Yet attention to mathematical processes was tenth in this first group of fourteen items as far as the jurors' ratings were concerned. Their comments indicated that many of these experts did not object so much to emphasis on basic computational skills, but that they objected to the considerable amount of formal algebra and geometry taught in many schools.

In other words, small schools are tending to overlook the social applications of mathematics and the development of a program of common learn-

ings in mathematics. This observation is substantiated by a later section in the questionnaire, in which questions were asked about the relative merit of certain subjects in the small high school. There, instruction in general mathematics received a fairly high rating as a method of making desirable contributions to the outcomes of the secondary-school curriculum, and algebra and plane geometry were nearly at the end of about thirty subjects listed.

Communication skills.—Communication is, of course, one of the most important objectives of secondary-school training. The four items of handwriting, spelling, oral expression, and written composition might be considered under the more inclusive heading of "Effective expression or communication."

The jurors apparently considered the oral aspect by far the most important of these four, having given it a very strong rating of 3.41. This was almost a full step above the school rating of 2.44. The schools, on the other hand, put greatest attention on written composition. Although this was second on the jury's rating of these four topics, it was still higher (2.92 to 2.59) than the school rating.

These high schools apparently felt that handwriting was not in their domain since they could give it only a little attention. The school rating of 1.58 was next to the bottom in this entire group of basic skills. While the jurors also rated it lower than any other topic in this group, their rating

(2.34) does tell the schools that more attention should be given to handwriting.

Reading.—Three types of reading were considered: reading for comprehension, reading critically, and reading rapidly. Both groups believed that reading comprehension should receive the most attention, but the schools' rating (2.59) was nearly a whole point behind the jury's (3.54). The schools were even further behind in the important matter of training the pupil to read critically the mass of printed material with which he comes into contact every day.

Most astonishing is the fact that, while the majority of these schools profess to prepare for college, they give little attention to reading rapidly. Perhaps they have not yet come to realize that one of the greatest assets to the college student is his ability to skim the many reading materials at his disposal in order to pick out crucial ideas, or it may be that they feel this aspect of reading is a function of the elementary school. The jury, with a rating more than double that of the small schools, disagreed on this point.

To read understandingly and to express himself effectively, an educated person needs to have an increasingly discriminating vocabulary. The schools are giving more attention to vocabulary development than to some of the other items in this group of fundamentals, and their practice gave vocabulary development the same rank on their list as that in the jury rating.

Scientific method and study skills.—

What may an educated man expect to have gained from his secondary school that will help him to pursue an investigation, to utilize his time and resources effectively at an institution of higher learning or in his ordinary life work? Familiarity with the scientific method, ability to use source and reference materials, and skill in how to study are important assets, the jury believed. All three topics were rated 3 or above (high degree of attention), with the greatest emphasis placed on how to study. It is interesting to note that the jurors, by their combined average, placed how to study at the top of this list of basic skills, whereas it was ninth in importance as far as the school practices were concerned. The schools gave more attention to the use of reference material, which might well be considered as but one aspect of the broader skill, how to study.

RATINGS ON PERSONAL PROBLEMS

Meeting sex problems.—The ratings given "Personal Problems" indicated that the schools are doing little to meet the need of the adolescent child who is becoming increasingly perplexed by the sex problem in its various manifestations. The evidence for this statement comes from the average rating of 1.15 for attention to sex relationships and only 1.50 for the less controversial topic of marriage and family living.

Some persons might question the actual necessity for training along this

line, but other aspects of the questions given to the schools revealed that marriage is sixth in the list of eight reasons why young people leave school, and another part of this investigation indicated that approximately 10 per cent of the girls who graduate get married within a year. Furthermore, it is assumed that most young people will become homemakers, and whatever the merit of the arguments that sex education and preparation for marriage are the responsibility of the parents or that youths are not yet ready (in spite of their avid interest as revealed by many pupil questionnaires), it is a fact that the jurors rated each of these approaches more than twice as important as did the schools. It should be admitted that in a small school public opposition is a stumbling block to the giving of sex education. Equally difficult is the problem of obtaining a competent teacher; for instruction in family living and in personal guidance, if poorly done, would be almost worse than none at all.

However, a less controversial matter, consumer education, is closely related to the future home problem. The schools have not yet included this subject in their curriculums to any great degree (1.57), although the jury appraisal (3.01) placed it in the category of being desirable to a high degree.

Maintenance of health.—The adolescent is interested in personal appearance and in being active. Both of these matters are closely related to the maintenance of good health. Interestingly enough, in this grouping of thir-

teen items, both the schools and the jurors gave top billing to maintenance of health. The significant difference is that the jurors put far more emphasis on it, the rating of 3.61 being near the top of all their ratings. The school practice, almost a full point lower, indicated only an intermediate stage of emphasis.

Vocational choices.—Questionnaires to youths also reveal that they are greatly concerned with the matter of vocational choices and vocational preferences. What should the small school do about this? In the order of their importance, as far as the jury was concerned, should be discovery of special aptitudes (3.26), the development of these aptitudes (3.01), general vocational education (2.88), and specific vocational training (1.68). In none of these four did school practice go beyond the level of a small degree of attention, and only general vocational education reached a rating of 2.00. Since educators are somewhat at odds over the relative place of vocational education in the secondary school, it is interesting to note that the jurors placed only a 1.68 rating on specific vocational training. This was the lowest of all their ratings for the fifty-eight items.

Moral training.—The question of moral training evoked some discussion from the respondents. There is, apparently, some tendency to think of this as religious education, although no respondent stated that he believed moral training is an undesirable outcome of youth education. As one

noted educator observed, "Education is not merely to prepare for conduct. It is to prepare for good conduct." Actually, both the jurors and the schools gave considerable attention to moral training. Some felt that it should be inherent in the program and others that it is more closely tied in with the objective of citizenship. As usual, the schools' practice tended to be about one point below that of the desirable standard as established by the jury.

Hobbies.—Since leisure and avocational activity are becoming more and more prominent in the lives of youths, with their lessened home duties and responsibilities, the cultivation of hobbies was suggested as a way by which a school might train young people to meet this challenge. Compared with the level of importance established by the jury for most topics in this section, this item received a somewhat low evaluation of 2.59, but this was more than a full point above the school practice of 1.58.

RATINGS ON SPECIAL AREAS

None of the topics of labor, machines, scientific farming, controversial issues, and conservation receives much attention in the small high school today. A number of the jurors said that their judgment would be conditioned by the type of community concerned, especially in the teaching of scientific farming. Statistics collected in connection with the participating schools indicated that almost

70 per cent are in agricultural areas; yet these schools gave little attention to scientific farming (average rating, 1.65). Respect for labor, a field which will become the life work of many of the pupils, was rated only 1.80 in school practice as compared with the jury standard of 3.41.

RATINGS ON LARGER SOCIAL RELATIONSHIPS

International understanding.—In the field of larger social relationships, there are several topics of international import. The ratings for UNESCO, international relationships, racial understanding, and problems of democracy indicated that the schools devote only a small or an intermediate degree of attention to practically every one of these items. This, understandably enough, was far below the desirable standard as judged by the experts.

Civic responsibilities and citizenship.—Whether one is considered a citizen of one world or of his own narrow region, it is important, the ratings of the experts indicated, to give considerable attention to such matters as citizenship training, civic responsibilities, and problems of democracy. In fact, the citizenship rating stood highest of all the items in the jury list. This is in sharp contrast to school practice, which placed it in eighteenth position. The schools' greatest concern in these three topics was with the problems of democracy; this finding may be explained by the fact that this

title is given to a course which appears in many secondary schools.

To develop citizenship, educators often suggest the practice of experiences which may be found in intelligent citizenship through participation in student government, in the study of current events, in attention to such matters as social service, social security, labor-management relations, public health, and the study of sources of information. In this group of topics, the schools and jury gave greatest heed to current events. In spite of the attention given during the war and postwar periods to propaganda and propaganda analysis, many of the small schools had not been stirred to devote any particular attention (1.71) to the study of sources of information.

Even though student government is often mentioned as a desirable experience in democracy in high schools, about 10 per cent of the schools replying to this investigation had no such organization. While the mere existence of such an organization may be nothing more than a gesture, the jury felt that it is important. This judgment would suggest that high schools should use some form of experience in democracy instead of confining their work largely to textbook discussion.

Safety and driver education.—Among the problems of daily living, the items of driver education and safety education were mentioned. Most of the schools were not yet providing driver education, and safety education was given only an inter-

mediate degree of attention. Perhaps this is because some of the school men felt that driver education would be expensive. It is, however, a misconception that driver education must be costly.

RATINGS ON APPRECIATIONS AND DISCRIMINATIONS

Literature.—The area of appreciations and discriminations was, in general, considered to be less important in the school program than the items previously considered. That is, the jury rated only one (current literature) of the eight items above the level of 3.0. In the case of classical literature, the experts felt that it is of barely intermediate degree of importance, and the schools gave it only a slightly higher rating. The attention given to classical literature in schools was only slightly less important than that given to current literature.

Fine arts.—Since it can be assumed that rural children have the same talents and interests as those in cities, the study would seem to indicate that the small high schools are failing to provide, in a satisfactory degree, for the development of art interests and opportunities. As one comment indicated, "Art is a blind spot in most of the small schools." Strangely enough, the schools give considerable attention to music, which stood tenth in importance among the fifty-odd items. At the same time, the jury placed it in thirty-seventh place.

In actual life today, our young peo-

ple give much attention to the radio and to movies. The schools offer almost no training in appreciations and discriminations concerning the selection of good radio programs and good movies. There seems to be a challenge here to include such experiences as an integral part of the training of all youth.

SUMMARY

Although a few of the items rated in this extensive comparison have not been analyzed, it seems desirable to present those items of greatest importance. Some of the particular topics have been made into separate courses or, at least, into specific units in some of the schools. Nothing in their na-

TABLE 2

TWELVE MOST IMPORTANT OBJECTIVES IN SMALL HIGH SCHOOL CURRICULUMS AS RATED BY JURY OF 86 PROMINENT EDUCATORS AND AS FOUND IN ACTUAL PRACTICE IN 228 SMALL HIGH SCHOOLS

Objectives Rated by Jury	Average Rating*	Objectives Found in School Practice	Average Rating
1. Citizenship training.....	3.71	1. English grammar.....	3.06
2. Maintenance of health.....	3.61	2. Mathematical processes.....	2.99
3. Civic responsibilities.....	3.61	3. Maintenance of health.....	2.62
4. How to study.....	3.57	4. Problems of democracy.....	2.61
5. Reading for comprehension.....	3.54	5. Written composition.....	2.59
6. Development of self-reliance.....	3.48	6. Reading for comprehension.....	2.59
7. Oral expression.....	3.41	7. Current events.....	2.59
8. Conservation.....	3.41	8. Civic responsibilities.....	2.59
9. Dignity of labor.....	3.41	9. Use of reference material.....	2.57
10. Problems of democracy.....	3.36	10. Music.....	2.52
11. Reading critically.....	3.35	11. Vocabulary development.....	2.51
12. Intellectual initiative.....	3.32	12. Oral expression.....	2.44

* The scale for indicating how much the topics should be emphasized was as follows: 0 = not at all; 1 = small degree; 2 = intermediate degree; 3 = high degree; 4 = very great degree.
When two or more items were apparently tied, as health and civic responsibilities, the order was determined by carrying the calculations to the next decimal place.

Auditorium arts.—Of the entire list of items, the second from the bottom among the jury preferences was training in auditorium arts. Since this item did not appear on the school questionnaire, a comparison cannot be made. In view of this generation's spectator approach to leisure and recreation, it is surprising to find that the jurors gave a rather low rating (2.22) to the auditorium arts.

ture, however, prevents a school, regardless of its size, from giving attention to nearly every one of them throughout the curriculum.

A guiding summary of the many items—a list of the twelve most important areas, as rated both by the expert jury and by the schools—is presented in Table 2 to suggest the topics to which the small high school, if it has to choose from its limited time,

teachers, and facilities, should give its greatest attention. Although the order of importance is not quite the same, in comparing the jury preferences and the school practices, both groups agreed that the following topics should be included in any list of most important matters: maintenance of health, reading for comprehension, civic responsibility, problems of democracy, and oral expression. Thus, it would seem that the school should seek to develop a good citizen who is healthy, who can read understandingly, and who can express himself effectively in conversation or in discussion.

The significant finding of this investigation is that many small schools in this country are still tied down by a traditional approach to secondary education and are failing to include topics and subjects which will make their programs more functional. Perhaps the greatest awakening educationally will come when the funda-

mentals of secondary education are thought to include such matters as how to study, reading critically, reading for comprehension, oral expression, and the effective use of reference material. Just as important from the point of view of personal growth are attention to health, development of self-reliance, fostering of intellectual initiative, and discovering one's special aptitude.

In short, the small high schools should give less attention to subjects and devote more time and thought to the analysis of problems of youth and to the establishment of what is coming to be known as "life adjustment" education. Indeed, there is little in this study to indicate that this problem belongs exclusively to small schools. Any secondary school in this country can better its educational program by studying the goals considered basic by the prominent educators who took part in this investigation.

GRAMMAR AND USAGE—SOME CURRENT THOUGHTS

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VARIOUS INTERPRETATIONS

NO DEFINITIVE RESEARCH exists, as far as I know, on grammar and usage. There have been—and are—many opinions, which have been expressed vociferously. There are traditionalists who rely on the authority of the past and insist that “common sense” and “what everybody knows” tell us that grammar is a part of everybody’s education and that, “of course, a knowledge of grammar will improve speech and writing.”

Then there are liberals within the profession, and skeptics without, who insist that grammar is one thing, usage another, and “never the twain shall meet.” They tell us that no one consciously employs principles of grammar when he uses language in normal circumstances. We simply follow patterns, they insist, and, consequently, the task of the school is to establish patterns, develop fluency, and provide situations which will induce the use of language in a climate conducive to growth. Obviously, this approach to language presupposes a school in which both curriculum and administration provide sufficient freedom to establish that favorable climate.

A third group accepts most of the thought of these latter proponents but swings a little farther to the right in asking that grammar be taught inductively, in association with the use of language. They ask for the development of functional grammar. But the term “functional grammar” is a seductive sort of term. It has a plausible sound because all of us agree that everything that is taught should be functional.

Here, however, we run into semantic pitfalls, both severely linguistic and emotional. When is a term functional? Some persons have attempted, either through a priori argument or through studies of usage, to establish a list of functional items. Other investigators, perhaps more realistically, have said that such a list is impossible because of the obvious limitations established by individual differences. They suggest that we teach grammar entirely inductively, pacing the instruction in terms of discovered needs and abilities as these are disclosed during the conducting of classwork. This approach is reasonable, but it imposes certain difficulties in terms of sequence and in respect to what each teacher in

turn may assume. It is particularly hard on people who favor grade-by-grade outlines.

The essential difficulty one faces in evaluating these positions and in trying to accept or to reject them is that the problem is not simple or clear cut. Each of these positions has at least some reason underlying it, and there are shades and degrees within each. For example, not even the most rigid of the first group would insist on complete coverage of grammar, and all admit that, at times, grammar and idiom are contradictory to each other.

RESEARCH STUDIES

I wish next to amplify and to illustrate this preface by certain studies. First, I shall cite research which pertains to some of the difficult concepts found in grammar and to the contradiction of historical grammar and usage.

The first two excerpts are from Fowler (2) and Jespersen (7). It should be understood that neither man was writing for the purpose which I have in mind and that these examples are mere excerpts. They could, however, be multiplied manifold by other examples from the same authors. Fowler says:

The subjunctive is moribund except in a few easily specified uses. . . . Owing to the capricious influence of the much analyzed classical upon the less studied native moods, it probably never would have been possible to draw up a satisfactory table of the English subjunctive uses . . . [and] assuredly no one will ever find it either possible or worth while to do so now that the subjunctive is dying [2: 574].

Fowler goes on to say that, outside the few truly living uses, occurrences of the subjunctive today are found legitimately in poetry that strives for "archaic effect" or in such specimens "as pretentious journalism, infecting their context with dullness, or new arrivals possible only in an age to which the grammar of the subjunctive is not natural, but artificial" (2: 574).

Obviously, then, teaching the subjunctive introduces certain problems!

Next a quotation from Jespersen:

Where a future event is thought of as dependent on human will, the question arises, Whose will? A distinction must be made between the will of the speaker and that of the subject of the sentence: these are identical in the case of the first person, but not in the second and third persons. Hence we have in various sections found different rules according to the grammatical person of the subject. . . . Emotions such as diffidence, modesty, etc., and further, the difference between statements and questions also exert their influence on the choice of the auxiliary.

It is no wonder, therefore, that different rules should have prevailed with regard to these verbs at different periods, and still prevail in different parts of the English-speaking world [7: 280].

Speaking of difficulties with verbs and subjects, Jespersen mentions "double-faced" verbs, as illustrated in the following sentences:

The garden swarms with bees.

This stream abounds in fish.

Her face was streaming with tears [7: 107].

Jespersen goes on to say:

The subject cannot be defined by means of such words as active or agent. This is further evident when we consider the meaning

of several verbs which denote anything but action, e.g.

He suffered torture.

He lost his father in the war.

Some verbs can in some connections denote an action, in others a suffering on the part of the subject:

He broke a twig.

He broke his leg.

He burned the papers.

He burned his finger.

If we analyze sentences like

He happened to fall.

He is sure to turn up.

He is sure to be rich,

there can be no doubt as to the grammatical subject: it is *he*. But notionally the matter is not so simple: we cannot in the usual way ask: "Who happened? Who is sure? Who is believed?"

... We thus discover that the notional subject is really a complete nexus, in which *he* is the primary, and *fall*, *turn up*, and *be rich* respectively is the secondary (adnex). We may express this in an unidiomatic way by saying that the notional subject, which is thus split in two, is *he-to-fall*, etc. [7: 107-8].

I think these excerpts illustrate further why grammar is not simple to understand and why it has little meaning for some types of pupils.

Next an illustration from Mencken, who wrote:

The effort made by the authors of such works [authoritarian grammars] to police the language, though it has always had the support of certain eminent American literati and of almost the whole body of pedagogues has never really impeded the natural progress of American [14: 167].

Writing in the late 60's of the last century, Richard Grant White said that "in New England . . . even the boys and girls playing on the commons" used the auxiliary verbs *will* and *shall* "correctly," which is to say, in accord with Southern English practice, and

that "even in New York, New Jersey, and Ohio, in Virginia, Maryland, and South Carolina, fairly educated people of English stock" did the same. But that was more than two generations ago, and the chances are it wasn't actually true even then. Today the distinction between *will* and *shall* has become so muddled in all save the most painstaking and artificial varieties of American that it may almost be said to have ceased to exist. Save for emphasis, *shall* and *should* are seldom used in the first person [14: 199-200].

The schoolmarm, in fact, has virtually abandoned her old effort to differentiate between the two auxiliaries, but she continues the heroic task of trying to make her young charges grasp the difference between *who* and *whom*. Here, alas, the speechways of the American people seem to be against her. The two forms of the pronoun are confused magnificently in the debates in Congress, and in most newspaper writing, and in ordinary discourse the great majority of Americans avoid *whom* diligently, as a word full of snares. When they employ it, it is often incorrectly. . . . Noah Webster, always the pragmatic reformer, denounced it as usually useless so long ago as 1783. Common sense, he argued, was on the side of "Who did he marry?" [14: 201-2].

Marckwardt and Walcott (13) point out that Milton and Coleridge used "try and," as do American undergraduates, and that many standard writers, including George Meredith, use "I wish I was."

Thus, Marckwardt and Walcott conclude:

Grammar is seen to be not something final and static but merely the organized description or codification of the actual speech habits of educated men. If these habits change, grammar itself changes, and textbooks must follow suit. To preserve in our textbooks requirements no longer followed by the best current speakers is not grammatical but un-

grammatical. It makes of grammar not a science, but a dogma [13: 133-34].

Thus, we may reach the conclusion that grammar is descriptive and not prescriptive.

Leonard (10:168-71) reports 75 per cent approval of the following terms:

As regards	Who are you looking
None are	for?
Go slow	To loan
It is me	I wish I was

Pooley says:

Whenever traditional grammatical classification ignores or misrepresents current usage, it must be changed or expanded.

When custom has established two forms or usages on approximately equal standing, both must be presented.

When current established usage conflicts with traditional rules, the rules must be modified or discarded [15: 160].

I like the question of Clarence Darrow, which is cited by Lewis. Lewis quotes Darrow as asking, "Even if you do learn to speak correct English who are you going to speak it to?" (11: 68.)

Lewis goes on to report the results of a questionnaire study in which he found that editors of women's magazines were most precise in their demands; 155 college teachers of English were most liberal; and lexicographers, the next most liberal (11: 69-70).

Greene (4) feels that one of the most plausible claims for teaching grammar is that it enables the student to attain a better understanding of sentences. But there is no evidence, he states, which shows that systematic instruction in recognition of grammatical elements or of complete subject or predi-

cate results in sentence mastery. He agrees with Rivlin (17: 10) that we should teach functional grammar and that functional grammar is that kind which will prevent or correct errors. Still, that statement itself does not define the term. Greene also reports a study of diagramming which was made for the purpose of procuring evidence regarding its usefulness. He found no reason to conclude that diagramming was an effective means of improving composition. Nevertheless, we find that most language textbooks both introduce diagramming and give attention to principles of grammar. Greene says:

The evidence shows that repeated and spaced habit-forming experiences are productive of mastery and should be substituted for formal rules and exercises whose values as a part of teaching methods are at least open to question. Let us reserve the grammar for later adult editorial use [4: 285].

Kaulfers (9) stresses the need of making one's self understood, of developing proper habits, of nurturing proper appreciations of the effect of the setting in which language is used, and of noting the distinction between relative and absolute standards. He describes the fallacy of absolute rules and feels that teachers will never get anywhere if their views are "out of tune" with what pupils see and hear all around them. He advises us to put first things first; to diagnose for group, and for individual, needs; to extend language experiences and to provide audience situations; and to remember that work in formal grammar, with

formal terminology, taught in the abstract, has little significance. He urges us to adopt economical procedures, to use grammar books only as references, and to persevere.

Kaulfers tells about a class with which the teacher strove in vain to establish the difference between *for*, the conjunction, and *for*, the preposition. Finally she said, "Whenever the word *for* means *because* inside a sentence, put a comma in front of it" (9: 67). The class got the point!

The use of practice sentences, both oral and written, is advised by Kaulfers. In addition, he suggests that teachers make up guides for usage and draw up pattern sentences. He believes that they should speak about the clarity of sentences rather than about grammar and that they should make continual comparisons with the models which they have devised. He enjoins them to write for their audiences in order to see if the thought is put across clearly, to use life-centered content in their teaching, and to do direct teaching, but in relationship to their students' experience.

In another article, Kaulfers states that, on the basis of a summary of research, no study of formal grammar has shown that it "is of the slightest benefit in improving a person's own personal use of language" (8: 171).

Pooley (16) maintains that we should use an inductive approach and postpone grammar until students are sufficiently mature. He believes that we should employ a corrective proce-

dure which is based on demonstrated needs. He also mentions that standards should be consonant with the social setting.

Dykema (1) asks for liberal views and attention to current usage.

Trunk (18) also deplores the employment of arbitrary rules and points especially to the weaknesses of some workbooks which ask for a single response in cases in which more than one correct answer might well be possible. He rightly says that such procedure militates against thought.

Hinkle (6) protests against the bad writing which he says he found in the schools of California. He goes on to tell that pupils, both in high school and college, had only the vaguest notions of either the identity and function of words or of structure. He believes that this condition prevents the colleges from ever getting beyond the point of just correcting errors and, thus, never provides them with the opportunity of developing fluency.

The liberalism of Dykema is criticized by Gucker (5), who takes issue also with the report of the English Appraisal Committee of New York City. Gucker states that even Pooley distinguishes between "it's me" and "it's her." In addition, he disagrees with portions of Leonard's and Marckwardt's techniques.

An important study, which was conducted in Glasgow, Scotland, is reported by Macauley (12). In this study, the teaching followed an established curriculum. The children were

taught noun, verb, and number at the age of seven and a half. At eight, the adjective was added; at eight and a half, personal pronouns; at nine, simple sentences, conjugation, kinds of nouns, and case; at nine and a half, analysis, tenses of auxiliary verbs, and adverbs; at ten, adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions, relative pronouns, and interchange of phrases and clauses; at eleven and a half and twelve, parsing and grammar were taught for thirty minutes daily.

Teachers of secondary schools claimed that, despite these four years of study, the children were coming to them without an understanding of grammar. However, the Education Reform Committee of the Educational Institute of Scotland continues to stress the importance of grammar in the schools but suggests that, in the primary school—including children to the age of twelve—the pupils simply learn to identify parts of speech and their functions.

Macauley cites the results of repeated tests which indicate that children in the secondary school, who had passed qualifying examinations on the primary course, could not identify grammatical elements or manifest understanding of them.

He concludes that the assumptions underlying the organization of the course are not substantiated by fact and that the teaching of grammar should be postponed until children are sufficiently mature to generalize. He refers to portions of the Binet test of in-

telligence for age fourteen which he believes are less abstract than the generalizations implicit in the primary-school course in grammar. Consequently, he feels that the definitions which are required in the present course are meaningless to young children and that the time spent in teaching these definitions to them is time wasted. He suggests that the teaching of grammar be postponed until the secondary school and even then taught only to selected pupils.

GENERAL CONCLUSIONS

This article has mentioned only a few of many possible references that might be cited. There are important omissions—for example, the work of Fries (3). The references which have been mentioned, however, will serve as indications of thinking on the subject. What do they say?

There appears to be common agreement that formal grammar, taught for its own sake, has little effect on usage. In addition, there is insistence on recognizing that language changes, that rules have to be altered, and that customs are fluent. The English language—more specifically the American language—is not static. People who use it prove to us time and again that grammar is a subsequent, language an antecedent, development. Grammar is the end of thinking, not the beginning.

This train of thought does not mean that we should teach no grammar. It does mean, however, that we should teach it inductively, as classes and in-

dividuals need it and demonstrate sufficient maturity to comprehend it. It means that we cannot provide, or rely on, grade outlines. It means that we must define "functional" in individual, rather than in general, terms. And it means that we must teach a language which people are using.

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STATE LEADERSHIP IN JUNIOR-COLLEGE CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT

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THE PRINCIPLE that education is a function of the state is fairly well accepted. Likewise, the statement that education depends on leadership is fairly well understood. However, opinions about what state leadership should do and what it consists of vary a great deal.

There are, of course, different types of leadership. There are the authoritarian and the democratic types. There may be leadership in school finance, in administration, in reorganization, in curriculum, and in other areas. The leadership from the state department may be directed toward elementary schools, high schools, or junior colleges. Questions also arise about the ability of state departments to lead and about the acceptability of such leadership to local administrators.

The present study sought an answer to the specific question: "Would leadership by state departments of education in the area of curriculum development be acceptable to junior colleges?"

Some state departments do not concern themselves at all about junior colleges. In one or two states the junior colleges are an extension of the

state university. In most of the states, however, there is at least a pretense of working with, for, or in favor of, the local institutions. This is the middle position. At the other end are those state departments of education which are vitally interested in the junior colleges of the state and are actively providing leadership.

PROCEDURE OF THE STUDY

This study was an attempt to find out whether the junior colleges would accept state leadership in the development of their curriculums. Eight statements representing phases of this leadership were presented to junior-college executive officers. The sampling included 165 public junior colleges in forty states. This number represents roughly half of all public junior colleges in the United States.

The statements were concerned with some phase of curriculum development. For example, one read, "Does the state make available an expert in curriculum work?" Other statements dealt with assistance in developing and improving materials of instruction, co-operating in setting up experimental curriculums, and work-

ing out philosophies. In addition, there were statements referring to curricular integration of high school and college, approval of vocational courses, full credit for transfer, and, finally, prescription by the state department.

The data are collected for quick reference in Table 1. The popularity

these services. The last two statements contain more elements of imposition and authoritarianism, but both groups—the “haves” and the “have-nots”—are agreed in their viewpoints.

COMMENTS ON STATEMENTS

1. One of the desirable services is for the state department of education

TABLE 1
RESPONSES TO STATEMENTS ABOUT DESIRABILITY OF STATE LEADERSHIP MADE
BY ADMINISTRATORS OF 165 JUNIOR COLLEGES IN 40 STATES

STATEMENT	FREQUENCY OF RESPONSE				
	Yes	Yes, but No Value	No	No, but Desirable	No Answer
The state department of education:					
1. Has experts in curriculum upon whom the junior college may call	80	7	51	49	34
2. Assists in developing and improving the materials of instruction	59	9	93	81	13
3. Promotes and co-operates in setting up experimental curriculums	60	11	93	82	12
4. Assists in the formulating of philosophies of education and objectives of instruction	88	15	66	56	11
5. Assists in and promotes the curricular integration of high school and college	59	13	88	68	18
6. Requires that higher institutions of learning in the state accept credits earned in junior-college transfer courses at full value	46	16	94	69	25
7. Approves of any changes in the offerings of vocational-education courses	64	29	85	22	16
8. Specifies the content of courses by approving courses of study, textbooks, and syllabi	36	25	115	16	14

of the first six statements is immediately apparent. Where the services described by these statements are not now available, they are generally recommended by junior-college heads. Most interesting are the facts that, where the services are supplied, they are appreciated, and if they do not exist, they are regarded as desirable. This finding points to the agreement of both groups on the desirability of

to have a curriculum expert who may be called in. Only nine of 131 administrators responding to the statement did not admit that the availability of such a person would be valuable. The fact that 51 schools located in about half of the states studied indicate that such a service is not to be had, while 49 of these think that it is desirable, ought to encourage state departments to institute it.

2. In most cases the state department of education does not assist in developing and improving the materials of instruction. Approximately 87 per cent of the respondents would welcome this type of assistance. Both those who are accorded this assistance and those who are not agree almost to the point of unanimity that it would be desirable and valuable for state departments to supply assistance in developing and improving the materials of instruction.

3. The third statement concerns experimental curriculums. Again the study touches upon an area somewhat neglected. Over half the school executives responding to this statement believe such aid and co-operation are desirable. Of those who do not now enjoy these services on the part of the state departments of education, 86 per cent would probably welcome it.

4. In the area of formulating philosophies of education and objectives of instruction, there is more assistance by the state departments than in any other field studied. By large majorities, the junior-college administrators believe that this assistance is valuable and desirable.

5. Again there is substantial agreement on the value and the desirability of assistance in, and promotion of, curricular integration of high school and college. Apparently, this type of assistance and promotion of educational activities would be an acceptable area for expansion of state leadership, especially in certain states. There appear to be twenty adminis-

trators who do not have this service and who do not want it. The reasons for the negative answers to this statement were not given. While a minority group was not enthusiastic about the possibilities of state leadership in this matter, the majority is in favor of it.

6. The sixth statement was phrased to discover whether state departments require that higher institutions of learning in the state accept at full value credits earned in junior-college transfer courses. The word "require" implies imposition. Even though the imposition were to the advantage of the junior colleges, there is a rising tide of disagreement. Here the negative response rose to almost three-tenths of those responding. However, the requirement by the state department of education that such recognition be given the transfer work may be reasonable. Almost two-thirds of the administrators who now operate under such a policy believe it has value. Almost 75 per cent of those who do not work under a policy making such a requirement believe it to be desirable.

7. State approval of changes in vocational courses is a negative type of curriculum leadership. That is, the statement implies neither the offering of assistance nor the supplying of stimulation. The minority group—those making negative responses—increased. Nearly half the schools operating under such a policy and three-fourths of those not under it were against it. This is a significant negative reaction; it clearly shows that

such a mild type of authoritarianism as indicated by the word "approval" is not desired by junior-college heads.

8. Prescription of the curriculum by higher authority does not lie within the meaning of leadership in curriculum development at the junior-college level. Nor do the junior-college executives interpret the state's leadership function to include curriculum prescription. Where prescription is a policy, more than two-thirds of the administrators are opposed to it. Where such detailed specification is not now a policy, only 14 per cent of the respondents would desire it. The conclusion is, then, that local administrators would favor no such minute dictation on the part of state departments of education.

CONCLUSIONS

It is clear that leadership in curriculum development by state departments of education would be more than welcomed by the junior colleges sampled. In this study eight statements were used, and all statements which indicated a service described by words such as "assisting," "pro-

moting," and "co-operating" were well received. The statements which indicated that the state should "require," "approve," or "specify" were not well received. Both administrators who have the assistance of state curriculum experts and other curriculum services of the department and administrators who do not have these services agree regarding their desirability. These data leave little room for thinking that state leadership would be resisted by local administration. Also, these data indicate that a number of state departments of education are not now rendering the services needed in curriculum development. The area is a fertile one for developing real state leadership.

A state policy which has for its objectives the encouragement and stimulation of, or assistance, promotion, and co-operation in, the development of the junior-college curriculum would certainly be acceptable to these institutions. If such a policy were coupled with the availability of experts and consultants who could be had on call, the first step toward real state leadership would have been taken.

A PROJECT IN GROUP JOURNALISM PROVIDES IN-SERVICE TRAINING

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A NOTABLE PUBLICATION, *Better Learning through Current Materials*,¹ prepared by the California Council on Improvement of Instruction, was announced in August, 1949, by Stanford University. This book was outstanding on two counts: because, first, "written for teachers by teachers, the book grew out of three years of experimentation in the use of current materials by a large group of teachers in high schools throughout California";² and, second, in the writing of the book, the council developed a procedure for group journalism that was effective in its results and profitable to the participants.

NEED FOR AN ORGANIZED PROGRAM

The program started with the suggestion from the Division of Secondary Education of the California State

Department of Education that it would be interesting if a group of teachers would experiment with increased classroom use of current materials. Accordingly, a workshop was organized early in January, 1946, for a week's study of ways and means for carrying on such classroom programs during the second school term. Some teachers came to the workshop with considerable previous experience in classroom use of newspapers, periodicals, radio, newsreels, recordings, guest speakers, forums, and other media and procedures from which the adult learns what goes on in the world. For the most part, however, the workshop members brought with them only a clear recognition of the need for using such media.

Why were these teachers concerned about the classroom use of current materials? It is a basic assumption of our way of life that all citizens have access to information regarding current affairs and that, as a consequence, they can form intelligent opinions on current issues and arrive at able and in-

¹ *Better Learning through Current Materials*. Edited by Lucien Kinney and Katharine Dresden. Stanford, California: Stanford University Press, 1949.

² Richard L. Henderson, "Educational News and Editorial Comment," *School Review*, LVII (October, 1949), 401.

telligent decisions. Thus, the curriculum of the modern school in all its branches must take the responsibility for relating formally organized content with the problems of today and tomorrow. As a consequence, current materials have been widely used in English, social studies, science, mathematics, and other subjects.

While the importance of this integration is daily increasing, the new and varied classroom practices necessary for effective use of current materials discourage the teacher who wishes to utilize the material but does not have the technique. The teacher attempting for the first time to draw directly on adult sources of information must face questions such as these: What materials are usable and available? Where can they be obtained? For what courses and what topics are they suitable?

Classroom procedure represents additional problems: How are current materials used effectively? How does one introduce them to the inexperienced class? What administrative problems must be met? Finally, in evaluating results, the teacher must ask himself: How effective are the materials in relation to pupil achievement in regularly expected subject-matter outcomes? What other special results may one expect in the class? How can the special results be measured?

Questions such as these led to the organization of the workshop in which the California Council on Improve-

ment of Instruction originated. Since the first workshop meeting in 1946, the teachers in the council have experimented co-operatively in using current materials and have collected evidence of their effectiveness in developing (1) effective learning in the subject-matter fields; (2) understanding of current affairs; (3) ability to use adult sources of information; (4) development of pupil leadership and resourcefulness; and (5) adjustment to individual differences among pupils in interests, capacities, and objectives.

In their early and sometimes discouraging experiences at the beginning of the project, the council members found an amazing dearth of published materials on detailed classroom procedures, or "tactics," as they came to be called. Exactly how does a teacher adjust such a program to individual differences? How does he plan and direct class discussions, use the bulletin board, the radio, and handle the multitude of other details which, unimportant in themselves, add up to expert teaching? The answers to these questions can come only from the teachers who have worked out such a program in their classrooms.

THE COUNCIL WRITES A BOOK

The small brochure³ published in September, 1947, which described the activities and results of the first

³ Lucien Kinney and Reginald Bell, *Better Teaching through the Use of Current Materials*. Stanford, California School of Education, Stanford University, 1947.

eighteen months of the study, met an instant response that required a second printing and world-wide distribution. The need for more information about procedures in this field was evidently general throughout the profession. And so the September, 1948, *Newsletter* of the council appeared with this headline: "We Are Going To Write a Book."

The announcement was the result of preliminary planning by a small group at Stanford University during the summer of 1948. The Stanford University Press had given them a deadline of February 1, 1949, for preparing a book to be published for the opening of school in September, 1949. Royalties were to go into a fund to support continued study of teaching practices. An October date was announced for a conference of all council members at Asilomar to collect and organize materials and to perfect the operations for completing the manuscript. The nine chapters suggested by the planning group were:

- Current Materials in Various Classrooms
- Current Materials as Enrichment
- Learning To Use Current Materials
- Current Materials as a Basic Resource
- Having Effective Classroom Discussions
- Developing Pupil Leadership
- The Room Display Area
- Administering Current Materials
- Evaluating the Effectiveness of Teaching Procedures

The Asilomar conference, held in October, 1948, was a typical council activity—two days of intense, continuous, stimulating interchange and

development of ideas. A committee was designated to study and report on materials for each chapter. The chairman was provided with a folder containing clippings from previous council reports pertaining to his topic. A staff member of the Stanford School of Education acted as adviser for each committee. After an opening session to review plans and schedule the agenda, the fifty members of the conference divided into committees, each of which drafted the outline of a chapter and supplied illustrative material on teaching practices from the files of material from earlier reports, from experiences of the committee, and from contributions from the general sessions at which each committee submitted its recommendations. Thus, the editors left the conference with a file of source materials organized by chapters, and with valuable suggestions concerning presentation.

Succeeding operations, agreed on at the conference, were as follows:

Saturday meetings at Stanford.—Saturday meetings were held throughout the autumn quarter. Council members from high schools in San Jose, Redwood City, San Francisco, and other schools in central California worked over the rough draft of each chapter. This rough draft was analyzed in a three-hour session. While suggestions regarding form and style were welcomed, the analysis was directed to these questions: Are these the most significant problems? Are these effective procedures for meeting

these problems? Do the illustrations portray the procedures effectively? Are they described clearly enough to be of use to any teacher?

While the main purpose of the meeting—to produce a chapter—was never lost sight of, the meetings actually constituted a seminar on teaching procedures that none of the teachers was willing to miss. Results of various activities were compared and difficulties and solutions considered in a free, informal, but serious interchange of ideas. After the first meeting, the editors spent each week preparing a working draft of the chapter for the next Saturday and completing the revision of the chapter worked over on the previous Saturday. By Christmas, 1948, a rough draft of the book was completed, representing the best thinking of the Saturday editorial groups.

The regional workshops.—Council members in outlying areas had not participated extensively in the Saturday meetings. They were now called on to appraise the over-all effectiveness of the book, as well as its detailed content. Week-end workshops were scheduled at Fortuna, Bakersfield, and San Diego to review the rough draft, chapter by chapter.

Here the groups considered first the general value of the book. Did it convey the purposes and activities of the council? Were the key problems defined and their solutions described? Next the council members turned to the individual chapters: Were better

illustrations of teaching procedures available? Recent classroom experiences provided much new and valuable information, and many useful suggestions resulted in a fairly complete rewriting. While the job to be done was never lost sight of, the stimulation provided by interchange of ideas and practices carried the meetings far into the night.

The final editing.—The members of the council had done their part, and now it was the turn of the editors. Many suggestions about form and style had been gratefully received by the editors during the work sessions. The problem now was to organize the material into a unified account that would give a clear and simple picture of the manner in which current materials were utilized in council classrooms. To supplement the verbal portrayal, the editors secured the cooperation of professional photographers, who recorded many scenes from council classrooms illustrating activities described in the text. The editors felt a real sense of achievement when they met the deadline of February 1.

EVALUATION OF THE PROJECT

As the council completes its second major publication, it is natural to pause for an objective appraisal of the values that have resulted from the project. Clearly, these values must be real and important; otherwise there would be no accounting for the steadily growing membership in the council and for the increasingly active sup-

port and participation of administrators in the project schools. What values have the members actually realized from their participation? What values do the administrators find in the project? What is the significance of the project from the viewpoint of the Stanford consultants? These questions have been examined at various council conferences, and the answers, briefly, are as follows:

The project teachers have uniformly found increased satisfaction in their teaching as they became more experienced in the use of current materials. This was brought about by:

The use of more significant content, together with improved teaching procedures.

A more effective classroom atmosphere for learning.

The integration of activities of school and community.

Better and more meaningful learning.

All the above-mentioned contributions of the council to the school situation and improved pupil-learning are important to the administrator and would amply justify his enthusiasm for the council and its activities. In addition, however, the project makes three other contributions which are of vital importance to the administrator:

1. It provides a focus of exploration and activity in the areas of curriculum development, teaching materials, and classroom procedures that radiates enthusiasm to the entire staff.

2. It provides security and fellowship for the experimental-minded teacher.

3. It provides for a systematic collection of evidence on the value of the materials and procedures which are being experimented

with. The administrator is continually faced with the question, from his school board and his community, "What are we getting as a result of this type of activity?" The public is entitled to an answer to this question. The council has accepted the responsibility for securing the evidence.

The consultants from Stanford University—Professors Bell, Kinney, Dresden, and others—were attracted to the project from the outset by the unusual emphasis placed on the controlled study of materials and procedures in the classroom. A vast resource of teaching materials, which hitherto was not of practical use to the schools because it had not been systematically studied, was made available. Classroom tactics, after years of neglect, were again stressed as essential equipment for the successful teacher. In brief, the council constituted a long-needed laboratory for appraising materials and developing teaching skills.

As time passed, however, the Stanford consultants became aware of values of even greater significance. They came to realize that here was a new and effective pattern for co-operation between schools and teacher-education institutions. Tactics could be studied only in the field; the school personnel required help in experimenting and evaluating—the co-operation of the schools and the University gave results profitable to all.

Gradual, also, was the realization that the council had created a new and more effective plan for education

of its members. Why is the project so effective as an in-service education program? First, because the initiative is with the teachers, who are seeking to improve their practices in clearly defined directions. In addition to the assistance extended by the consultants in response to specific requests, exchange of ideas and practices at the conferences provides an amazingly effective learning procedure. Evaluation programs continue to provide evidence of growth in teaching ability.

At least equally important is the fact that the project is indigenous to each school. The activities and the procedures being studied are those that each teacher considers important.

If the council were to be dissolved tomorrow, the progress that has been made would remain, and its continuation would be limited only by the loss of stimulation and exchange of information within the group.

What is the next step? Each chapter in the book opens up new possibilities for exploration and discovery. Having established the organization and procedures for effective co-operative research, the council is unanimous in its view that its work has only begun. With the stimulus of new members and new schools on its rolls, the council will continue its quest for new ways for "better, happier, and more meaningful learning."

OBJECTIVES AND METHODS IN TEACHING AMERICAN HISTORY

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A VARIETY OF METHODS

METHODS OFTEN DIFFER in emphasis rather than in essential features. One method stresses the question or discussion; another, directed study; another, directed study with differentiated assignments; and yet another, the socialization of the recitation. All these forms, however, may properly be used in the same class within the course of a year's work.

The teaching of American history in the secondary school offers a particularly fertile field for innovation and experiment in method. In this subject the content is, perhaps, less definitely selected and organized, more extensive in amount, and more varied than it is in many other subjects and, thus, admits of many modes of presentation.

Perhaps the chief cause of this variety and uncertainty in method lies in the fact that, in general, teachers of this subject have failed as yet to determine definitely the values to be obtained and the ways in which the recitation can assist in securing these values. Furthermore, they have not fully recognized the factors which

condition the presentation of any subject, such as the necessity for mass education, the peculiar qualifications of each teacher, individual differences, and the principles of learning.

DETERMINING THE VALUES

If these are the causes, the first step that should be taken is to determine specifically the values to be sought from the teaching of American history. The first consideration must be the type of students enrolled in the class. Suppose the class is made up of Seniors whose average age is eighteen. Most of them will not continue their education in advanced schools. Out of the thirty in the class, about four will attend college, four will enter nursing or commercial schools, and the rest will find jobs when and where they can.

In determining the aims and objectives of history for this class, it should be kept in mind that the aim of all education is to influence behavior; that the value of education is measured by the degree to which it influences behavior; that there are recognized forms of behavior which are desirable; and that an understanding

of certain fields of knowledge will aid in securing some of these forms better than will other fields. The problem now is to decide which of these desirable forms of behavior can best be promoted through the study of American history.

Promoting desirable forms of behavior.—Since American history is a content subject, the desirable forms of behavior which its study can promote are those that arise from an understanding of a social situation—whether it has its origin in the past or whether its present status is important—and from certain powers and skills which can best develop in connection with this type of content. The history of the origin and development of our social institutions, the study of the principles which this history will disclose, together with a study of the present conditions of the institutions, will certainly give rise to an understanding which will result in better behavior, conduct, or action than ignorance or lack of understanding of them will do.

An understanding of the agencies of government—their origin, their development, and their present status—is necessary before a proper attitude toward these agencies, sane judgments regarding support of them, or wise changes in them can be expected.

To be more definite, can it not be assumed that certain desirable forms of behavior, such as tolerance, social consciousness, sympathy, co-operation, a feeling of responsibility, sus-

pension of judgment, and a proper attitude toward social institutions and agencies, may be greatly stimulated, if not largely determined, by the understanding that is fostered through the teaching of American history?

It seems probable that the understanding gained in American history will become evident in an appreciation of the past; of the customs which, by long usage, have become part of our social life; of the gains made through the experience of the ages; and of the contributions of the past in shaping our present institutions. This understanding will also evidence itself in proper attitudes toward social agencies, such as the government, the school, and the church. It should aid in molding public opinion in regard to these agencies, in setting up standards of achievement for them, in supporting them, and in criticizing and advocating changes when they are needed.

Further evidence will be an appreciation of human relations, such as the interdependence of people, their rights and duties, tact, sympathy, co-operation, tolerance, and loyalty, and an appreciation of these relations as found in business and government. Another result will be a desire to know the truth. This desire will manifest itself in the use of facts in making judgments, in the forming of independent judgments, in habits of reasoning and discussion, in dissatisfaction with the idea of a single cause for a historical event, and in historical-

mindedness. In another form, this desire for the truth will assert itself in research, investigation, observation, and systematic study.

Promoting the acquisition of abilities and skills.—Accompanying this understanding, there should arise abilities and skills which will result in desirable actions. Some of these skills are the ability to get at the point of a paragraph or a question; to interpret a map; to discover the significance of facts; to find material on a topic; to recognize differing degrees of probability; to organize a group of facts; to portray facts in graphs or maps or diagrams; to discover in given conditions resemblances, differences, relations, or tendencies; to trace a development; and to draw conclusions from given facts. These abilities, combined with the skill acquired in their use, will provide powerful impetus toward desirable behavior.

PROVIDING MOTIVATION

After the objectives have been determined, motivation may be provided through students' interests. By setting the stage carefully, the students can be led to ask the questions themselves. For example, a local incident, a newspaper account, or a magazine article may serve to arouse interest. However, too much dependence should not be placed on extrinsic methods of motivation. Intrinsic methods should be used whenever possible, and there are times when a combination of both would be best.

METHODS OF TEACHING

The next step should be to determine what methods to use. Methods in teaching are devices for applying the principles of learning. The methods used should be adapted to the teacher, to the students, and to the materials that are to be taught. There is no single method of teaching American history. Few teachers can use all methods equally well. The teacher should use the method best suited to his peculiar ability, provided that it conforms to the general requirements for any method. No one method will be used. Rather, various parts of various methods will be employed. The type or part to be used will depend on the objectives which are sought. All procedures must fulfil the following requirements:

1. They must foster understanding effectively. Understanding, in this sense, includes the information or store of fundamental facts necessary for an intelligent view of the subject, the principles and general truths essential to understanding, and the impressions and attitudes that accompany understanding.

2. They must assist in the development of character. A sense of social consciousness, a belief in the rights of others, a knowledge of men's interdependence, and a sense of responsibility must be developed. Furthermore, a love of truth—the questioning attitude so necessary to investigation and the painstaking analysis preparatory to the discovery of the truth—

must be encouraged. Strengthening of character, through the formation of good habits of study, of reading, of thinking, and of judging, must also be stimulated.

3. They must give satisfactory training in desirable skills, such as ease of oral, written, or graphic expression, in order that the students may gain facility in expressing the attitudes and understandings which they have acquired. Skill in finding material for a topic; solving a problem in historical analysis; and discovering in past and present conditions resemblances, relations, or tendencies must also be developed.

4. They must make use of the psychological principles that govern learning, namely, recognizing the ex-

istence of individual differences and making provision for them; providing motivation which has human appeal; utilizing the students' previous experiences; and employing drills, tests, and discussions.

RÉSUMÉ

In summary, then, the steps to be followed in teaching American history are determining the objectives of the course, helping the students to realize the objectives of the course, and arousing the interest of the students. The method, or methods, by which the subject is taught must be adapted to the talents and abilities of the individual teacher, to the needs and interests of the students, and to the types of materials which are being used.

SELECTED REFERENCES ON STATISTICS, THE THEORY OF TEST CONSTRUCTION, AND FACTOR ANALYSIS

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614. WHERRY, ROBERT J. "A New Iterative Method for Correcting Erroneous Communality Estimates in Factor Analysis," *Psychometrika*, XIV (September, 1949), 231-41.
- Presents a new method for correcting the estimated communality coefficients. It is applicable to any factor-analysis method which assumes communalities in the diagonal.
615. YELA, MARIANO. "Application of the Concept of Simple Structure to Alexander's Data," *Psychometrika*, XIV (June, 1949), 121-35.
- Applies an oblique factorial solution to data previously described in terms of an orthogonal solution.

EDUCATIONAL WRITINGS



REVIEWS AND BOOK NOTES

HAROLD SPEARS, *The High School for Today*.

New York: American Book Co., 1950.

Pp. xiv + 380. \$4.00.

A novel approach to the task of describing the origins, development, and present functions of the American high school is that provided by Harold Spears in his recent volume, *The High School for Today*. Readers who are acquainted with previous books written by Spears have become familiar with the distinctive manner in which he uses his own cartoons to illustrate some of the ideas he presents. More noteworthy, however, are the informal style of writing and the stimulating organization of content which not only make the present volume interesting reading but also contribute to the ease with which either the beginning student of education or the experienced reader may understand the author's point of view.

In the first division of the book, "The School and Its Promise," Spears explains some of the current problems facing the schools and reviews proposals regarding secondary education as stated by important commissions and other study groups. He emphasizes the point that the idea of "education for all American youth" is a relatively recent notion growing out of the gradual evolution of the concept of American democracy.

Part II, including about 40 per cent of the total contents of the book, deals with the types of curriculum changes currently being considered in American high schools. Particularly stimulating is the discussion concerning the machinery for curriculum change, which the author believes should be organized on a state-wide basis with local ex-

perimental centers. Considerable emphasis is placed on the community-school idea and on a curriculum program geared to the needs of individual youths as well as to the group needs of society. Recognition is given to the notion that the curriculum must be viewed as involving all the experiences of youth under the supervision of the school.

The subject of Part III is "The Teacher and the School." After discussing the administrative structure of public education in America, Spears gives considerable attention to qualities of the good teacher, working conditions of teachers, codes of ethics, teachers' salaries, and teachers' loads. After a lengthy analysis of various types of salary schedules and the principles that go into the development of them, Spears concludes that "the improvement of the salaries of teachers is dependent ultimately upon the improvement of the service that the schools return to the supporting public. There is no better talking point for increased school revenues than good schools themselves" (p. 256). This section of the book is concluded with a vigorous proposal for democratic leadership on the part of school administrators. The author points out that the American high-school principal has used great ingenuity in organizational improvement but has shown considerable lack in his ability to provide leadership in improving the instructional program of the school. Without the democratic leadership of an alert principal, the work of the expert, the philosopher, or the psychologist may be largely wasted.

The last section of the book presents a brief history of the development of American secondary education and places considerable

emphasis on the origins and evolution of supervisory officers. The final chapter, "The People's High School," summarizes the author's point of view with respect to the problems which need to be solved if the people's high school is to become a reality.

A reader usually asks several questions of a new book: Is the book a needed contribution to the field? What are the strengths and weaknesses of the volume?

In answer to the first question, it seems fair to state that most of the ideas presented in the volume have been pronounced in previous articles, books, proceedings of conventions, and addresses. On the other hand, the author has assembled more of these ideas into one place than anyone has done previously. Moreover, he has organized and presented them in a vigorous and interesting style.

So far as the second question is concerned, it may be said that Spears has rightly placed emphasis on the responsibilities of teachers in local school systems for the improvement of the services of the schools to all American youth. Some readers will question the lack of reliance upon the statements of educational philosophers and the somewhat sketchy treatment of the history of American secondary education.

The High School for Today will be read, studied, and discussed widely by students in teacher-training institutions and by faculties of schools. All these groups will find the content helpful and stimulating. School administrators should find in this volume a challenge to the high calling of democratic leadership. The book should serve an important function in the ongoing re-examination of American secondary education.

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CLIFFORD P. FROELICH, *Guidance Services in Smaller Schools*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1950. Pp. xiv+352. \$3.75.

The last few years have seen much clarification of the field of guidance. From a questionable "extra," it has now penetrated to the very heart of the educational system. Yet this does not mean that all teachers understand or are equipped to function in this area. Many are as puzzled and uninformed as they were in earlier days. Although educators in small schools may accept guidance verbally, they often give size as an alibi for lack of performance in this area.

In *Guidance Services in Smaller Schools*, Clifford P. Froehlich seeks to show that, despite its small enrolment, no school can evade guidance responsibilities any more than it can ignore instructional responsibilities. The book opens with a listing of "Imperative Needs of Youth." The author feels that, to meet these needs, the school must know its students, help them with their educational choices, and carry on a continuous evaluation of its services. Such activities form the basis of any guidance program, and the chapters that follow show how small schools are providing these services.

Froehlich stresses the facts that guidance is not confined to experts, that a program should not be imposed on a staff, that only those functions which teachers can perform adequately should be undertaken, and that the program's progress depends on the staff's ability to gain additional information and skill. He discusses the responsibilities of teachers, administrators, and counselors and cites definite situations, the methods used, and the compromises worked out in small schools throughout the United States. Sufficient theory to orient the teacher who is functioning for the first time in a guidance program is given.

Concrete information is presented on setting up an orientation program, on methods of disseminating occupational information, on studying the individual, on counseling, on placement, and on the teachers' role. In addition, actual forms and materials in use in various schools are included. The relationship between the guidance program and

the curriculum is clarified, and public relations, research, and evaluation are also discussed.

This book is both practical and consistent with the latest theory. However, in his desire to establish the fact that any and all schools can initiate a guidance program, the author runs the risk of having readers draw the false conclusion that anyone can counsel and that directing a guidance program requires little, if any, specialized training or skill. While it is true that many small schools must initiate programs with no trained personnel, this is a condition to be rectified, not a satisfactory one. The detailed information and the many descriptions and materials make this a most helpful book for personnel in either large or small schools.

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SHIRLEY A. HAMRIN and BLANCHE B. PAULSON, *Counseling Adolescents*. Chicago: Science Research Associates, Inc., 1950. Pp. x+372. \$3.50.

Counseling Adolescents, by Hamrin and Paulson, is written especially for school counselors and for students who are training to become school counselors. It is the first volume to be published in the Professional Guidance Series, of which Clifford P. Froehlich, specialist for training guidance personnel, United States Office of Education, is the series editor.

The basic point of view of the authors of *Counseling Adolescents* is that counseling is a specialized, rather than an incidental, function of school personnel. Therefore, this service must be performed by competent school counselors as an integral part of the total school program. The qualifications, interests, skills, attitudes, personal relations, plans for continued growth, and philosophy of competent school counselors are set forth in the last chapter.

The preceding chapters describe, in sequence, how the competent school counselor

weaves his understanding of psychology, his knowledge of the counseling process, his experience as a teacher, and his own personality into the fabric which clothes his daily face-to-face contacts with individual pupils.

While *Counseling Adolescents* devotes two chapters to discussions of the directive and nondirective approaches to counseling, it steers clear of attachment to either point of view. Hamrin and Paulson advocate rather the "eclectic approach" which represents neither point of view exclusively but both and more (p. 88). This particular procedure emphasizes counseling techniques that are explanatory, informative, and educative in character and thus are particularly appropriate for the problems of "normal" adolescents. It also lays stress on the concept of the counseling interview as a learning situation in which the counselor imparts to the individual pupil pertinent information and assists him to use that information in solving his problems.

The style employed in *Counseling Adolescents* is direct, down-to-earth, and unencumbered by psychological jargon. Warmth and human interest are secured by personifying three typical counselors and describing how they help adolescents in solving specific problems. The reproduction of three complete counseling interviews, several case studies, and numerous practical illustrations help to answer the novice's question, How do you do counseling?

In the opinion of the present reviewer, this book is a major contribution to the development of school counseling as a profession. It ought to be studied by all experienced and inexperienced counselors who aspire to increase their effectiveness. Teachers who read *Counseling Adolescents* will secure a broader and deeper understanding of the purposes of counseling services and of the role which teachers play in the guidance program. School administrators should place it on their "must" reading list. It furnishes them with the essential standards for selection of counselors. Everyone who reads

it will be convinced beyond any doubt that effective counseling services cannot be secured by chanting the all-too-familiar shibboleth, "Every teacher a counselor." Instead, schools must employ trained counselors and must allot time within the school

day for individual counseling. In no other way can the school assist young people to deal with their individual problems.

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